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THE PROFESSIONAL READING OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL[1]

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Until recently the term professional training, if applied to high-school teachers, has been a misnomer. The best recruits to the ranks brought a formal mastery of one or more subjects, certified to by the optimistic heads of college departments whose sublime contempt for training in methods, if acquired at all, was the result of costly experiment upon the human material that fell helpless into their hands. The case was essentially the same with the principal. Callow youths, their college courses just completed, entered upon the duties of the principalship with no additional qualification except, perhaps, the promise of executive ability based upon their own self-assurance and conceit. Those whose early promise was measurably fulfilled by experience, or who developed an aptitude for practical politics, were promoted to higher positions, leaving their former places to be filled by others of the same sort.

But now, however, that the recent demand for efficiency has been extended to all forms of industrial and social enterprise, the schools are in for an overhauling. The inadequacy of the traditional curriculum to meet modern social demands, and the inefficiency of methods of instruction and administration have been

[1] A paper read before the University of Illinois Secondary-School Conference.

brought to light. And now suddenly we school principals find ourselves confronted with a new vocabulary consisting of such terms as individual differences, normal distribution curve, motor control, reflective thinking, etc., which we must learn in order to save our faces, to say nothing of our jobs. The zeal with which we flock to the centers of learning and spend the heated term in pursuit of knowledge of which we have never before felt the need indicates that we are awake to the gravity of the situation.

Along with all this we have come to realize that the functions of a principal include something more than sitting in a swivel chair and dispensing discipline to recalcitrant pupils and parents, making out programs of recitations for the subjects of a traditional curriculum, and keeping the records of the school. We have found that some of our accustomed tasks can be better done by a fifteen-dollar clerk, some can be delegated to other members of the teaching staff with benefit to all, and some do not need to be done at all. A knack for getting on with people in settling or avoiding difficulties and a facility in the performance of routine office tasks are coming to have relatively less importance, while the interpretation of the modern social demands in terms of curriculum, materials, and methods of instruction which shall function in actual life experience has become of paramount importance. The principal must no longer be a mere craftsman, but a professionally trained leader of the teaching staff, and in matters of education he must share with the superintendent the responsibility of leadership of the entire community.

The new demands upon the principal require a breadth of reading and experience which few have had, but all must strive to attain. Until recently the literature of education has been in the form of a philosophy whose implications have been too vague for application in actual school procedure, or of a methodology which has found its application only in the practice of the elementary school. The last ten years, however, have been marked by the publication of a wealth of material dealing with the secondary school which is quite appalling to the principal who feels the need of mastering the literature of his calling. Some of this is of excellent quality, some is hardly worth reading, but all of it indicates an attitude that is full

of promise. The high cost of paper is likely to check the flood temporarily, so that we need not utterly despair of finding our bearings. What we need just now is a pilot to chart the course.

In undertaking to prepare a bibliography which he could confidently recommend as including the books which every principal should read and excluding those of merely ephemeral value, the writer was at once struck with his inadequacy to the task. His experience in preparing the following bibliography leads to the conclusion that no single person is able to prepare such a list. A number of men whose work lies in the field of secondary education in universities in various parts of the country were asked to submit lists of ten or fifteen books which they regarded as most valuable for the professional reading of high-school principals. Eight men submitted such lists, one each from the following universities: Chicago, Columbia, Harvard, Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, Pittsburgh, and Wisconsin. Three of these named more than fifteen, one named only nine. Some of the titles included more than one volume. All the titles suggested have been included in the list. As might be expected, the lists submitted indicated what might be called institutional preferences. In the request for recommendations no reference was made to educational journals. The emphasis placed upon these in some of the submitted lists indicates that they are regarded as extremely valuable and would doubtless have received further recommendation had their inclusion been suggested. One said, "I feel that the best books in secondary education for principals of high schools are the volumes of the *School Review*."

The material has been roughly classified under ten heads. The titles under each head are arranged in order of the number of choices assigned to each; those receiving one choice are arranged in alphabetical order. The publisher's name, date of publication, number of pages, and net price are given in each case. A brief bibliographical note is appended with each title and is intended to suggest the content or distinctive method of treatment of the book.

Several significant facts appear in this bibliography. The large number of titles indicates the difficulty of selecting from the available material what is of most value. There are sixty-two different

titles including in all ninety-one books and journals. In four of the main divisions there is pretty general agreement on the most important books: Dewey's *Democracy and Education* (5), Judd's *Psychology of High School Subjects* (6), Johnston's *Modern High School* (7), Monroe's *Principles of Secondary Education* (7), Parker's *Methods of Teaching in the High School* (7). Davis' *Social and Moral Guidance* (3) is the only book receiving more than one choice in the group on "Industrial Education and Vocational Guidance." The field of administration has more titles than any other, fourteen in all, of which two receive seven choices each, and eight others receive two or more choices each. Division 4, composed of books dealing with the history of secondary education or with foreign secondary schools, contains four titles with two or three choices each. Another noticeable fact is revealed by the dates of publication showing that all but four of these books have been written within the last ten years, most of them within the last five years.

1. PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATION

(5) Dewey, John. *Democracy and Education.* Macmillan, 1916. Pp. 434. $1.40.

An introduction to the philosophy of education. The author "endeavors to detect and state the ideas implied in a democratic society, and to apply these ideas to the problems of the enterprise of education."

(1) Bagley, W. C. *Educational Values.* Macmillan, 1911. Pp. 267. $1.10.

The controls of conduct; the classification of functions and values.

(1) Bolton, F. E. *Principles of Education.* Scribner, 1910. Pp. 790. $3.00.

The author "assembles the main, well-tested results of the scientific study of education from the psychological and biological viewpoints and presents them in a way which secures continuity, correlation, and a unified interpretation of them."

(1) Moore, E. C. *What Is Education.* Ginn, 1915, Pp. 357. $1.25.

A discussion of some of the fundamental presuppositions of education.

2. PSYCHOLOGY

(6) Judd, C. H. *Psychology of High School Subjects.* Ginn, 1915. Pp. 515. $1.50.

A practical application of psychology to the materials and methods of high-school instruction.

(1) Ames, E. S. *Psychology of Religious Experience.* Houghton Mifflin, 1910. Pp. 428. $2.50.

Chapters xi–xiv deal with the psychology of adolescence.

(1) Angell, J. R. *Psychology.* Holt, 1905. Pp. 402. $1.50.
An introductory study of the structure and function of human consciousness.

(1) Calvin, S. S. *The Learning Process.* Macmillan, 1911. Pp. 336. $1.25.
The psychology of learning as related to the theory and practice of elementary and secondary education.

(1) Dewey, John. *Interest and Effort in Education.* Houghton Mifflin. Riverside Educational Monographs. Pp. 102. $0.60.
Discusses types of interest and their place in the theory of education.

(1) Hall, G. S. *Adolescence.* Appleton, 1904. Vol. I, pp. 589; Vol. II, pp. 784. $7.50.
The psychology of adolescence and its relations to physiology, anthropology, sociology, sex, crime, religion, and education.

(1) Thorndike, E. L. *Psychology of Learning.* Teachers College, 1913. Pp. 452. $2.50.
An experimental study of the learning process.

3. ADMINISTRATION

(7) Johnston, C. H. *The Modern High School* (rev. ed.). Scribner, 1916. Pp. 847. $1.75.
The administration and extension of the high school with examples and interpretation of significant movements. Contains extensive bibliography.

(7) Monroe, Paul (editor). *Principles of Secondary Education.* Macmillan, 1914. Pp. 790. $1.90.
Contains twenty-one chapters by the editor and other specialists on the history, organization, and materials of secondary education.

(4) Johnston, C. H. *High School Education.* Scribner, 1912. Pp. 555. $1.50.
Contains chapters by the author and several others on the history, organization, and materials of instruction of the high school.

(3) Cubberly, E. P. *Public School Administration.* Houghton Mifflin, 1916. Pp. 479. $1.75.
A statement of the fundamental principles underlying the organization and administration of public education.

(3) King, Irving. *The High School Age.* Bobbs-Merrill, 1914. Pp. 233. $1.00.
Discusses the physical, mental, and social characteristics of adolescence in their relation to the organization and activities of the school.

(2) Hollister, H. A. *High School and Class Management.* Heath, 1915. Pp. 314. $1.25.
Administration and technique of teaching in the high school.

(2) Russell, W. F. *Economy in Secondary Education.* Houghton Mifflin, 1916. Riverside Educational Monographs. Pp. 74. $0.35.

Causes of waste discussed, and comparison with foreign schools.

(2) Stout, J. E. *The High School.* Heath, 1914. Pp. 322. $1.50.

Treats of the function, organization, and administration of the high school.

(1) Davis, C. O. *High School Courses of Study.* World Book Co., 1913. Pp. 172. $1.50.

A constructive study applied to New York City.

(1) Hollister, H. A. *The Administration of Education in a Democracy.* Scribner, 1914. Pp. 383. $1.25.

Deals with school administration, with democracy as a unifying principle.

(1) Morehouse, F. M. *The Discipline of the School.* Heath, 1914. Pp. 342. $1.25.

Deals with the theoretical and practical aspects of school discipline.

(1) Sachs, Julius. *The American Secondary School.* Macmillan, 1912. Pp. 295. $1.10.

A discussion of the aims and methods of public and private secondary schools with frequent reference to the practices of foreign countries.

(1) Strayer, G. D., and Thorndike, E. L. *Educational Administration.* Macmillan, 1913. Pp. 391. $2.00.

An application of scientific method to the studies of students, to the teaching staff, organization of schools, and school products.

4. HISTORICAL AND COMPARATIVE

(3) Brown, E. E. *The Making of Our Middle Schools.* Longmans, 1902. Pp. 547. $3.00.

An authoritative and exhaustive treatment of the history of secondary education in America.

(3) Farrington, F. E. *French Secondary Schools.* Longmans, 1910. Pp. 450. $2.50.

An account of the origin, development, and present organization of secondary education in France.

(3) Russell, J. E. *German Higher Schools.* Longmans, 1910. Pp. 455. $2.50.

The history, organization, and methods of secondary education in Germany.

(2) Learned, W. S. *The Oberlehrer.* Harvard University Press, 1914. Pp. 150. $1.25.

A study of the social and professional evolution of the German schoolmaster with application to conditions in American schools.

(1) Brereton, C. *Studies in Foreign Education.* Houghton Mifflin, 1913. Pp. 302. $1.60.

A comparative study of French, English, and German secondary schools.

5. METHODS OF TEACHING

(7) Parker, S. C. *Methods of Teaching in High Schools.* Ginn, 1915. Pp. 529. $1.50.

A practical treatment of methods in which the author takes the point of view that efficiency and economy in instruction are facilitated by (1) adapting all instruction to contemporary social needs, (2) basing methods of instruction on sound psychological principles, and (3) applying principles of scientific business management to the conduct of teaching.

(2) Bagley, W. C. *The Educative Process.* Macmillan, 1905. Pp. 358. $1.25.

Covers the field commonly included under the term "general method," but deals with principles rather than with the details of device and method.

(2) Dewey, John. *How We Think.* Heath, 1910. Pp. 224. $1.00.

The nature of reflective thought, and means and methods of training in thinking.

(1) Bagley, W. C. *Craftsmanship in Teaching.* Macmillan, 1911. Pp. 247. $1.10.

(1) Brown, R. W. *How the French Boy Learns to Write.* Harvard University Press, 1915. Pp. 260. $1.25.

A study in the teaching of the mother-tongue.

(1) Hall-Quest, A. L. *Supervised Study.* Macmillan, 1916. Pp. 433. $1.25.

A discussion of the study lesson in the high school.

(1) Parker, S. C. *Textbook in the History of Modern Elementary Education.* Ginn, 1912. Pp. 505. $1.50.

Emphasis on school practice in relation to social conditions.

(1) Sandwick, R. L. *How to Study.* Heath, 1915. Pp. 170. $0.60.

Discusses the principles of effective study.

(1) Stevens, Romiett. *The Question as a Measure of Efficiency.* Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 48. Teachers College, 1912. Pp. 95. $1.00.

A critical study of the efficiency of classroom instruction as measured by the number and quality of questions.

(1) Thorndike, E. L. *The Principles of Teaching.* Seiler, 1916. Pp. 293. $1.25.

A manual to guide in the application of principles based on psychology.

(1) Whipple, G. M. *How to Study Effectively.* Public School Publishing Co. Pp. 44. $0.50.

A clear discussion of the principles of effective study with practical suggestions for forming right habits.

6. MEASUREMENTS AND RESEARCHES

(2) Starch, D. *Educational Measurements.* Macmillan, 1916. Pp. 202. $1.25.

The measurement of abilities in various subjects of the elementary- and high-school curricula.

(1) Freeman, F. N. *Experimental Education.* Houghton Mifflin, 1916. Pp. 220. $1.30.

A laboratory manual for experimental education.

(1) Van Denberg, J. K. *Causes of the Elimination of Students in Public Secondary Schools of New York City.* Teachers College, Contributions to Education, No. 47. Pp. 206. $1.50.

(1) Whipple, G. M. *Manual of Mental and Physical Tests.* Warwick & York, 1915. 2 vols., pp. 534 and 336. $3.75 per set.

The purpose and methods of conducting tests with the results and conclusions of many tests.

7. SURVEYS

(2) Cleveland Survey, Russell Sage Foundation, 1916, 25 vols.

The most complete survey yet made, consisting of 16 volumes directly relating to the schools, and 9 volumes on the vocations of the city of Cleveland.

Schools:

Child Accounting in the Public Schools. L. P. Ayres. $0.25.
Educational Extension. C. A. Perry. $0.25.
Education through Recreation. G. E. John. $0.25.
Financing the Public Schools. E. Clark. $0.25.
Health Work in the Public Schools. L. P. Ayres and Mary Ayres. $0.25.
Household Arts and School Lunches. Alice C. Boughton. $0.25.
Measuring the Work of the Public Schools. C. H. Judd. $0.50.
Overcrowded Schools and the Platoon Plan. S. O. Hartwell. $0.25.
School Buildings and Equipment. L. P. Ayres and Mary Ayres. $0.25.
Schools and Classes for Exceptional Children. David Mitchell. $0.25.
School Organization and Administration. L. P. Ayres. $0.25.
The Public Library and the Public Schools. L. P. Ayres and Adele McKinnie. $0.25.
The School and the Immigrant. H. A. Miller. $0.25.
The Teaching Staff. W. A. Jessup. $0.25.
What the Schools Teach and Might Teach. Franklin Bobbitt. $0.25.
The Cleveland School Survey (summary volume). L. P. Ayres. $0.50.

Vocations:

Boys and Girls in Commercial Work. Bertha M. Stevens. $0.25.
Department Store Occupations. Iris P. O'Leary. $0.25.
Dressmaking and Millinery. Edna C. Bryner. $0.25.

Railroad and Street Transportation. R. G. Fleming. $0.25.
The Building Trades. F. L. Shaw. $0.25.
The Garment Trades. Edna C. Bryner. $0.25.
The Metal Trades. R. R. Lutz. $0.25.
The Printing Trades. F. L. Shaw. $0.25.
Wage Earning and Education (summary volume). R. R. Lutz. $0.50.

(1) *Educational Section of the Springfield, Illinois, Survey.* L. P. Ayres and Others. Russell Sage Foundation, 1914. Pp. 152. $0.25.

(1) *Portland, Oregon, Survey.* E. P. Cubberley and Others. World Book Co., 1915. Pp. 441. $1.50.
A textbook on the city-school administration based on a concrete study.

8. INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

(3) Davis, J. B. *Vocational and Moral Guidance.* Ginn, 1914. Pp. 303. $1.25.
Emphasizes methods of vocational and moral guidance through oral and written expression in English.

(1) Carleton, F. T. *Education and Industrial Evolution.* Macmillan, 1908. Pp. 320. $1.25.
A discussion of the educational problems connected with social and industrial betterment.

(1) Davenport, Eugene. *Education for Efficiency.* Heath, 1909. Pp. 184. $1.00.
Industrial education in the elementary and high schools with particular reference to agriculture.

(1) Kerchensteiner, Georg. *The Idea of the Industrial School.* Macmillan, 1913. Pp. 110. $0.50.
Translated from the German.

(1) Leavitt, F. M. *Examples of Industrial Education.* Ginn, 1912. Pp. 330. $1.25.
An interpretative survey of current types of industrial education.

(1) Puffer, J. A. *Vocational Guidance.* Rand McNally, 1913. Pp. 294. $1.25.
The equipment and methods of the counselor; various occupations and professions.

(1) Thompson, F. V. *Commercial Education in Public Secondary Schools.* World Book Co., 1915. Pp. 194. $1.50.
A critical and constructive treatment of current problems in commercial education in the secondary school.

9. GENERAL

(2) Lewis, William C. *Democracy's High School.* Houghton Mifflin, 1914. Riverside Educational Monographs. Pp. 130. $0.60.
A popular discussion of the school with emphasis upon the pupil rather than upon the traditional subjects of instruction.

(1) Butler, N. M. *The Meaning of Education.* Scribner, 1915. Pp. 378. $1.50.

Seven essays and addresses dealing chiefly with the function and organization of the school.

(1) Monroe, Paul (editor). *Cyclopedia of Education.* 5 vols. Macmillan, 1911. $5.00 each.

A concise discussion of all topics of importance and interest to the teacher with cross-references and bibliographies.

(1) Snedden, D. S. *Problems of Educational Readjustment.* Houghton Mifflin, 1913. Pp. 262. $1.50.

(1) Weyl, W. E. *The New Democracy.* Macmillan, 1913. Pp. 370. $2.00.

An essay on certain political and economic tendencies in the United States.

10. PERIODICALS AND PROCEEDINGS

School Review. University of Chicago Press. $1.50. Published monthly except July and August. Managing editor, R. L. Lyman.

A journal of secondary education.

Educational Review. Educational Review Publishing Co., Easton, Pa., and New York. $3.00. Published monthly except July and August. Editor, Nicholas M. Butler.

A journal dealing with the general field of education.

Educational Administration and Supervision. Warwick and York, Lancaster, Pa., and Baltimore, Md. $2.00. Published monthly except July and August. Managing Editor, C. H. Johnston.

Proceedings of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Published by the Association, Henry E. Brown, Secretary, 1916.

FURTHER EXPERIMENTAL DATA ON THE VALUE OF STUDYING FOREIGN LANGUAGES

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In the issue of the *School Review* for December, 1915, the writer presented certain data on the effect of the study of foreign languages upon a pupil's general scholastic record, upon the size of his English vocabulary, upon his knowledge of English grammar, and upon his ability to use English correctly. The general results of those findings were that the study of foreign languages materially increases a pupil's knowledge of English grammar, that it increases to a small extent the range of his reading vocabulary, and that it modifies only slightly his knowledge of correct grammatical expression or his general scholarship.

The purpose of the additional experiments to be reported here was to determine the effect of foreign-language study in still other directions and to ascertain, if possible, how much of the difference n the performance of pupils with or without a considerable amount of language study may be due to the actual training effect of the language study and how much may be due to a difference in the original ability of the pupils.

In order to obtain concrete information on these problems, a variety of tests was carried out with 177 university students. The results of these tests are exhibited in Table I. The numbers in row 1 divide the students into groups according to the number of years of foreign-language work. On the right side of the table the same students are separated into two groups according to whether they had studied Latin or not irrespective of other language work. The second row of figures gives the number of students in each group.

The first test consisted in the writing of an extemporaneous composition in ten minutes on the topic "What Abraham Lincoln Sees" (referring to the Lincoln statue on the upper campus of the

TABLE I

1. Years of foreign language	1–2	3–4	5–6	7–8	9–15	Percentage 9–15 Group / 1–2 Group	No Latin	Latin
2. No. of persons	14	53	49	40	21	.....	59	112
3. Composition (Hillegas scale)	67.6	69.3	68.7	71.5	78.2	15.7	67.9	72.6
4. Words written	140.7	158.3	162.1	168.1	181.4	28.9	158.7	165.0
5. Different words used	82.3	86.6	96.6	96.8	111.6	35.4	89.6	95.2
6. Reading—speed	4.5	5.4	5.5	5.2	6.0	33.3	5.4	5.5
7. Reading—comprehension	60.0	65.0	70.5	65.7	68.2	13.7	64.0	69.0
8. Perception—A-test	66.2	66.8	66.2	67.8	66.1	0.0	66.2	67.1
9. Perception—form	7.5	7.7	7.8	7.5	8.0	6.7	7.8	7.9
10. Memory—words	7.4	7.2	7.3	7.2	7.2	−2.7	7.3	7.3
11. Association—free	23.5	25.9	22.6	29.9	28.7	26.4	25.3	26.3
12. Association—synonyms	15.4	15.0	15.9	15.4	14.2	− 7.7	15.0	15.4
13. Imagery—forms	7.0	7.6	7.0	7.1	7.8	11.3	7.2	7.4
14. Imagery—words	5.0	5.7	5.1	5.7	6.1	21.4	5.5	5.6
15. Years of English	5.1	4.9	5.3	5.5	5.5	.....	5.0	5.3
16. Grades—first year of high school	83.0	85.7	83.7	86.7	88.0	.....	84.5	85.7

University of Wisconsin). These compositions were evaluated by means of the Hillegas-Thorndike scale, each composition being rated by three judges. The numbers in row 3 refer to the values of the compositions in that scale. The larger the numbers are, the better is the quality of the composition. The numbers in the vertical column under percentage refer to the gain of the 9–15-year group over the 1–2-year group. To illustrate, the compositions written by the students who had studied foreign languages from one to two years had an average value of 67.6 in terms of the Hillegas-Thorndike scale. The compositions written by the students who had studied foreign languages from nine to fifteen years had an average value of 78.2, or 15.7 per cent better than those written by the 1–2-year group.

The numbers in row 4 give the average lengths of the compositions written by the different groups as indicated by the number of words written in ten minutes. It will be noticed that the average length of compositions increases materially with additional years of foreign-language study. The 9–15-year group wrote in ten minutes compositions which were 28.9 per cent longer than those of the 1–2-year group.

The next problem was to discover whether the range of variety of the writing vocabulary varied with the different groups. The figures in row 5 give the average number of different words in each composition. The 1–2-year group wrote on an average 82.3 different words in a composition whose average length was 140.7 words. There is a considerable increase from group to group. The 9–15-year group shows a gain of 35.4 per cent over the 1–2-year group. This gain, however, is not as large as it seems to be at first glance. In fact, the range of the writing vocabulary does little more than keep pace with the increase in the length of the compositions. In case of the 1–2-year group, 82.3 different words in a total of 140.7 is 57.1 different words per 100 words written; and in case of the 9–15-year group, 111.6 different words in a total of 181.4 is 61.1 different words per 100 words written.

The next test was a reading test as described elsewhere.[1] Row 6, for speed of reading, gives the number of words read per second,

[1] D. Starch, *Educational Measurements*, p. 20.

and row 7, for comprehension, gives the number of words written to express the thought-content of what had been read in the allotted time. Both aspects of reading ability show a marked increase from group to group.

There are two general factors which enter into the increased ability in composition or in reading with the increasing years of foreign-language study: (1) the training effect of the study of languages and (2) the selection of pupils. The persons in the 9–15-year group wrote better compositions and had better ability in reading than the 1–2-year group, partly because of greater linguistic training and partly because of their better original capacity. The purpose of the remaining tests was to measure, if possible, the relative shares of these two factors.

The test designated as "Perception A-test" is the well-known test bearing that name. The numbers in row 8 give the number of A's cancelled by the various groups in one minute.

The perception test in row 9 was a geometrical form test which has been used for several years in the laboratory of the University of Wisconsin. It consisted in crossing off in one minute as many geometrical forms of a certain kind as possible printed on a card among a variety of similar figures. The numbers in row 9 refer to the number of figures crossed off in the allotted time.

The test in row 10, memory for words, consisted in reading to the persons a series of ten monosyllabic nouns at the rate of one word per second. The subjects then wrote down all the words that they could recall. This test was repeated with four different series of ten words each. The numbers in row 10 give the average number of words retained.

The test designated as "Association—free" was carried out by giving a stimulus word and having the persons write as many associated words as they could in thirty seconds. Five stimulus words were used with an allowance of thirty seconds for each. The numbers in row 11 refer to the average number of associations made per person.

The test "Association—synonyms" consisted in giving a series of ten stimulus words and allowing fifteen seconds to each word for writing as many synonyms as possible. The figures in row 12 indicate the number of synonyms written in the allotted time.

The imagery test, row 13, consisted in a series of ten special tests of which the following is an example: "Consider a cube. Each face has a letter on it. *A* is on the face toward you, *B* on the face to your right, *C* on the back face, *D* on the left face, *E* on the top face, and *F* on the bottom face. Now turn the cube so that *F* is toward you and *D* is on top. What letter is on the right face and what letter is on the left face?" These tests, of course, were carried out mentally without the use of drawings or figures. The numbers in row 13 refer to the average number of tests done correctly by the different groups.

The test in row 14 was also designed as a test of imagination and consisted in presenting to the subjects seven words, one word at a time, spelled orally backward by the experimenter. The subjects then put down the word if they knew what it was. This was done mentally without first writing down the letters in reversed order. Row 14 gives the average number of the words out of seven that were recognized correctly.

The results of the experiments show that the gain in quality of composition of the 9–15-year group over the 1–2-year group is 15.7 per cent and that the difference in general ability between these two groups is 7.9 per cent if tests 8–14 may be regarded as measuring the difference in original ability. The difference between 15.7 per cent and 7.9 per cent, or 7.8 per cent, would be the residuum due to the additional language training which the 9–15-year group had had.

In order to make a crucial comparison as to how much of the greater composition ability was due to the greater original capacity of the pupils and how much was due to their greater training in language, the grades received by these students in all the subjects carried during the first year of the high school were obtained from the entrance records of the University. The amount of difference in original ability of the groups who later pursued varying amounts of language work would be definitely indicated by this method, since none had had more than one year of foreign language. The difference in the scholastic grades at the end of the first year of the high school between those who later pursued languages for a total of 9–15 years and those who pursued languages for a total of 1–2 years could certainly not be due to language training.

Row 16 gives for the different groups the average scholarship grades during the first year of the high school. It will be noted that there is a steady increase from group to group. The 9–15-year group had an average grade of 88.0, or five points higher than the 1–2-year group.

The next problem was to compare in common terms the five points of difference in scholarship on the percentile scale with the difference of 10.6 in quality of composition as measured by the Hillegas scale. To reduce these two types of measurements to commensurate units, fifty-eight compositions were rated by four persons both by the percentile method and by the Hillegas scale. In case of the percentile scale, 70 was assumed as the passing grade. Eighteen of these compositions had a value on the Hillegas scale between 66 and 70, with an average value of 68.3. Their average percentage value was 79.1. Sixteen compositions had a value on the Hillegas scale between 76 and 80, with an average value of 78. Their average percentage value was 83.7. These two groups are taken because they coincide most closely with the composition values of the 1–2-year group and the 9–15-year group respectively. We may now equate the two methods of rating compositions as follows: The difference between 68.3 and 78.0, or 9.7, Hillegas scale, is equal to the difference between 79.1 and 83.7, or 4.6, percentage scale. Hence 1.0 point on the percentage scale equals 2.1 points on the Hillegas scale and the difference of five points, percentage scale, in original scholarship between the 1–2-year group and the 9-15-year group would be 10.5 in terms of the Hillegas scale. The surprising result seems to be that the difference of 10.6, Hillegas scale, in quality of composition between these two groups is approximately equaled by 10.5, the difference in original scholarship when expressed in terms of the Hillegas scale. The conclusion seems, therefore, unavoidable that the difference in ability in English composition is due practically entirely to a difference in original ability and only to a slight or no extent to the training in foreign languages.

The increase in length of composition and in speed of reading is large and very probably in excess of the difference in original ability. Training in foreign language seems to have produced a distinct effect in greater fluency of words in writing and in more rapid perception of words in reading.

TEACHER-TRAINING DEPARTMENTS IN NORTH CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOLS

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It is known to most of those who are in any way concerned with secondary education that a number of high schools in North Central and other states are maintaining, as a part of their educational offering, teacher-training or normal departments. To what extent teachers of these departments are required to teach other high-school work, of what the work in these departments is constituted, to what extent credit toward graduation from the high school is granted for it, what the principles are that determine its organization and content, what other high-school work is required of training-department students, and for what teaching these departments aim to prepare—these facts are not so well known. The following pages present such facts concerning the teacher-training departments in 19 high schools in 7 states of the Middle West: Kansas, 6; Minnesota, 1; Missouri, 5; Nebraska, 3; Oklahoma, 3; South Dakota, 1; Wisconsin, 1. The data used in the study were supplied by teachers who were designated by their principals as "constructively interested in the development of effective courses of study" in their line of work. The high schools from which the data have come are in communities ranging in population from two or three thousand to more than a hundred thousand.

THE WORK OF THE TRAINING-DEPARTMENT TEACHER

What the importance of the department is in the minds of those responsible for the high schools may be judged in part by the amount of work other than that of the teacher-training department taught by the instructor of this work. The facts as to this may be seen in the following tabulation showing the average number of classes per day other than teacher-training classes taught by these teachers:

Average Number of Classes Other than Training Classes	Number of Teachers
0	7
1	1
1.5	1
2	7
3	2
4	1
Average, 1.4	Total, 19

The fact that 7 of the total number of training-department instructors devote their time exclusively to the department, that 16 teach 2 classes or less and that in but 3 schools are they required to teach 3 or more periods per day outside the department, indicates that the department is made their primary concern, i.e., it is important in the minds of those responsible for the high schools.

The subjects other than training-department courses taught by these teachers were ascertained and are as follows: history is mentioned 6 times; English, mathematics, and science are each named twice; domestic science is mentioned once. Two teachers speak of additional administrative duties.

THE TRAINING-DEPARTMENT OFFERING

Years of appearance of the teacher-training work.—The work of the departments appears in the third and fourth high-school years in 17 schools and exclusively in the fourth year in 2 schools. In the former the work does not constitute all of the work of the student in either year. In the latter it requires the student's full time.

The usual teaching subjects.—The educational offering in these departments is exceedingly diverse. The subjects as reported have, for the purposes of this study, been distributed in three groups which we may term (*a*) the usual teaching subjects, (*b*) the pedagogical subjects, and (*c*) the special subjects. Subjects in the first group are required in all but one of the 19 departments. The representation of these subjects may be seen in the following tabulation which lists each subject under the name by which it was reported and the number of times it appears in the data supplied:

Subject	Number of Times Reported	Subject	Number of Times Reported
Reviews	11	American history and civics	1
Arithmetic	6	Language and grammar	1
Civics	6	Geography	1
Physiology	6	Reading, literature, composition, spelling, and penmanship	1
Common branches	3		
English (professional)	2		
American history	2		

The total amount of time devoted to these subjects ranges from a third of a year to a year, but, for most schools offering them, reviews extend through a year, and arithmetic, civics, and physiology extend through a half-year.

The pedagogical subjects.—One or more pedagogical subjects are required by all the 19 schools. The representation of these subjects may be seen in the following tabulation. Subjects are designated by the names given them by the teachers reporting. As in the case of the usual teaching subjects, the amount of time devoted to these subjects ranges from one-third to a full school year, but psychology and methods and management are more commonly half-year subjects, methods and methods and observation extend through a full year, while the practice in pedagogy is almost evenly divided between half-year and full-year courses.

Subject	Number of Times Reported	Subject	Number of Times Reported
Psychology	10	Professional work	1
Pedagogy	7	Psychology and school management	1
Methods and management	6	Pedagogy, psychology, country-school management, and country life	1
Methods	5		
Methods and observation	3		
History of education	2		
School management	1		

Special subjects.—The offering in the special subjects is notably infrequent. Agriculture, when organized and conducted especially for the students in these departments, is reported for 8 schools, in 5 cases as a half-year, in 2 as a full-year course, and in the remaining departments as part of a one-third year course in agriculture and nature-study. But it is also required, as may be seen below, when

not so organized and conducted, in 8 additional schools. It is thus seen to be a constituent of the work in almost all teacher-training departments, which, in the light of the fact to be pointed out later, that these departments are largely occupied with the preparation of rural-school teachers, is surely to be commended. Other courses in special subjects appearing once each and organized and conducted especially for this department are manual training and domestic science, drawing, drawing and music, and bookkeeping. Additional instances of the requirement of special subjects, where these are not maintained especially for the students in these departments, will be found listed below under "Other High-School Work Required of the Training-Department Students."

THE PRINCIPLES DETERMINING THE ORGANIZATION AND CONTENT OF THE COURSES IN THE USUAL TEACHING SUBJECTS

The teachers in these departments were asked to state the principle that determines the organization and content of the courses in such usual teaching subjects, the common branches, as are constituents of the work of the department. Is the work largely review, does it aim to develop scholarship in these subjects, or does it aim to give the student a knowledge of teaching methods and principles of organization of courses? No one of these principles operates to the exclusion of the others in any department. The first and second principles dominate in a single school, the first and third in 11 schools, and all three are kept in mind in 4 schools. One of the teachers in the last group responded as follows: "The primary aim is to develop a knowledge of teaching methods and principles of organization of courses, but considerable attention must be given to review of subject-matter, as well as to extension of it." The total numbers of times that each of the principles is recognized are, respectively, 16, 8, and 18. Manifestly, most of the teachers are assuming that scholarship in the teaching subjects has been sufficiently provided for and that the task to be accomplished is the development of the professional aspects of these subjects, which may, however, usually imply some measure of review.

CREDIT GRANTED TOWARD GRADUATION FOR THE TRAINING-DEPARTMENT WORK

No school of this group denies credit toward graduation for any of the work so far touched upon in this study. The total amounts, in units,[1] of this work accepted toward graduation are as follows:

Number of Units Granted	Number of Schools
2	2
3	10
3½	1
4	3
4½	1
5	1
6	1
Total number of schools	19

It may be understood from this that work in the teacher-training department, for purposes of high-school graduation, is placed on a par with the traditional high-school subjects.

OBSERVATION AND PRACTICE TEACHING

Observation of teaching is required in all the 19 departments, but the amounts vary so widely as to make it impossible to point to a standard practice, and are stated in such a way as not to make them readily comparable. It has already been noted above that 3 departments include the work in observation with that in methods as a single course. Five schools report—and this is in accord with state requirement[2]—30 lessons during the school year, 7 report the equivalent of one 20- to 40-minute period per week throughout the school year, and a single school each reports "one day in each month," "two days," "depends on class," and "a very little." In 11 of the 19 schools no credit is granted for the observation required. In the remaining schools the credit is allowed

[1] The unit was defined as follows for the teachers supplying the information for this study: "A Unit is here understood to be the equivalent of a subject running through a full school year with five single class periods per week for which the student is required to make preparation outside the class period. When no such preparation is required, the class period is usually doubled, as in laboratory or shop courses, or the credit cut to half the amount that would be granted were such outside preparation necessary."

[2] Missouri.

for it as part of courses in methods, methods and management, methods and observation, observation and practice teaching, etc.

Practice teaching is a requirement in but 5 of the 19 departments. The teacher in one of these departments reports that "some time is provided," the remaining 4 reporting as shown by Table I. Thus, in 14 of the 19 schools no organized practice

TABLE I

Number of Weeks	Number of Periods per Week	Length of Period in Minutes
18	5	80
20	5	15, 20, and 30
20	5	40
36	5	60

teaching is provided, although 3 speak of permitting the students in the department to substitute when the regular grade teachers are off duty. Although "learning by doing" is long since a platitudinous educational principle, many of us are still failing to recognize it in educational practice, preferring to direct our students in reading and talking about an activity to requiring participation in it.

OTHER HIGH-SCHOOL WORK REQUIRED OF TRAINING-DEPARTMENT STUDENTS

Fifteen of the 19 schools in which the teacher-training departments supplying data for this study are maintained prescribe to a greater or less extent what the student's work outside the department is to be. The 4 remaining schools state that the student's work outside the department is not prescribed for him, i.e., we may conclude that the remaining work necessary for graduation is elective. The prescriptions of the former group are set forth in Table II. The more commonly prescribed subjects are seen to be English, mathematics, history, science, and agriculture. The modal amounts of requirement in these subjects are, respectively, 3, 2, 1, 1, and 1 units. American history is named as a requirement in 9 of the 15 instances in which history is prescribed. If to this number are added the 3 departments that report it as a required course especially organized and conducted for the teacher-training

TABLE II

Prescribed Work Outside the Training Department

English		Mathematics		Science		History		Civics	
Number of Units	Number of Schools	Number of Units	Number of Schools	Number of Units	Number of Schools	Number of Units	Number of Schools	Number of Units	Number of Schools
2½	1	1	1	1	9	½	1	½	2
3	8	2	7	1½	1	1	6	?	1
4	1	2½	1	2	2	2	3	Total...	3
?*	1	?	1	?	2	?	5		
Total...	11	Total...	10	Total...	14	Total...	15		

Foreign Language		"Special or Vocational" Subject		Agriculture		Bookkeeping		Penmanship	
Number of Units	Number of Schools	Number of Units	Number of Schools	Number of Units	Number of Schools	Number of Units	Number of Schools	Number of Units	Number of Schools
3	1	1	2	½	1	?	2	½	1
				1	5				
				?	2				
				Total...	8				

*The question mark indicates that the amount of credit was not stated.

department, as noted above, we find it an all but universal requirement. In 4 of the 14 instances of a prescription in science, physics is named. It is interesting to note that foreign language is prescribed in but one school.

The total amounts of prescribed work outside the department for those schools that supplied data in such a form as to make them usable for such a compilation, are as follows:

Number of Units	Number of Schools
0	4
3	1
5	1
6	1
7½	3
8	1
13	1
Total	12

These amounts vary widely but, with the exception only of the school prescribing 13 units, give the student, as may be seen by comparison with what has been reported above under the head of "Credit Granted toward Graduation for the Training-Department Work," the privilege of election of a part of his work. Taking the training-department work does not deprive the student of all freedom of election in his remaining high-school work.

KINDS OF SCHOOLS FOR WHICH TRAINING DEPARTMENTS AIM TO PREPARE TEACHERS

Eleven of the 19 departments aim to prepare teachers for rural schools exclusively. Seven others prepare for both rural and graded schools, although 4 of this number make it clear by some qualifying statement that preparation for the latter is not the primary function of the department: "for rural schools primarily," "for graded schools in exceptional cases only," "but largely for country schools," "best fifth-year students elected to local elementary schools." One of the 19 departments prepares only for "any grade in the grammar schools" of the city in which it is maintained. It can seldom be anything but an unsatisfactory professional situation that will permit graduates of the high-school teacher-training departments, without subsequent training elsewhere, to teach in the elementary schools of a city school system. Preparation for rural-school teaching is more nearly justifiable on account of the present dearth of teachers with any amount of professional training in these schools.

THE EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS AND TENURE OF THE TEACHING POPULATION. I

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Since a number of states require no academic standard other than the "ability to pass an examination before a local county superintendent or other supervising officer," and keep no record other than the grade of certificate held, adequate measurement or even an estimate, of the academic and professional preparation, tenure, and experience of the teaching population of the country as a whole is impossible.

A. THE EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS OF THE TEACHING POPULATION

The following data from government reports indicate that our teaching population is woefully lacking in preparedness. In 1905 the Commissioner's report stated that the number of normal graduates did not nearly meet the demand due to the expansion of the school system, resignation, or death, hence thousands of places had to be filled with untrained or half-trained teachers. In 1911 the Commissioner reported that less than half of the teachers in this country had adequate preparation. "In some states less than 20 per cent of the teachers have had full preparation given by the normal schools, and in most states less than 10 per cent of the teachers in the country schools have had such preparation." The report for 1912 stated that the greatest evil in our school system was the lack of trained teachers. "In no other country that pretends to provide an opportunity for universal education is the condition in this respect so bad as in the United States." In 1914 the 40,000 teachers with some measure of professional preparation did not nearly meet the demand, hence Monahan and Wright concluded "that for not more than one in five positions is a trained graduate available" (1).[1]

[1] Numbers refer to bibliography to appear in the May issue of the Journal. Charts were drawn by Messrs. Baker, Cadwallader, Hartman, and Samples of the manual-training department.

Excerpts from various educational surveys repeat the refrain of the educational unpreparedness of our teachers. The recent survey of Vermont revealed this fact: "Aside, then, from the teachers trained in schools elsewhere, or, since 1911, in the graduate course in Vermont, and a few high-school graduates who have enjoyed a year in the new training classes, Vermont has, in the proper sense of the term, no professionally trained elementary-school teachers." (2) In the recent survey of Ohio it was found in the sections studied that only 50 per cent of the rural teachers were high-school graduates, and 18 per cent had an elementary education only. In the elementary schools 50 per cent of the teachers were high-school graduates, and not less than 16 per cent had completed the elementary school only. In the high schools 60 per cent of the teachers were not college graduates, and 19 per cent had not completed high school. In 1914 Alabama reported that only 73 per cent of her teachers claimed to have any training above the seventh grade. The percentage with training above the high school, other than summer school, is as follows: not more than one year above high school, 21 per cent; not more than two years, 36 per cent; not more than three years, 45 per cent; more than three years, 5 per cent. One does not wonder that in his report for 1915 the state superintendent put his conclusion in large letters, "Teacher Training in Alabama Is a Crying Need."

A survey of Wisconsin rural schools showed that they have been made "a dumping-ground for untrained and unsuccessful teachers." The supply of inexperienced but "legally qualified girls keeps down the salaries and standards of efficiency." Many young people have taken up this work, not because they were especially fitted for it, but because it was the only thing they could do with their limited amount of preparation (3). The superintendent of public instruction of Oklahoma states that "the inexperienced and untrained teachers gravitate to the rural schools where they secure experience and training at the expense of these schools." "An ideal system of education would not permit an inexperienced, untrained teacher to experiment with boys and girls except where that work is supervised by experts."

For the purpose of studying the educational qualifications of rural teachers, Foght selected 55 representative counties in the

United States and sent questionnaires to 6,000 rural teachers. From the 2,941 replies received, he found that 4 per cent have had less than the elementary-school course; 45 per cent had completed a four-year high-school course; and 67.7 per cent had professional training, interpreting training to cover all kinds of professional instruction such as summer schools and short courses. "From the foregoing it is evident that the greatest weakness of the rural teachers now in service is their professional unpreparedness. One-third of all of them have no professional basis on which to build, or specific knowledge of the science or art of teaching" (4, p. 28). Without the equivalent of a high-school course "the teacher cannot have the necessary store of information to draw from as occasion may demand; he is in danger of getting into ruts; and his educational vision becomes hopelessly narrowed and indistinct" (4, p. 24). Where certification is based on no academic standard other than ability to pass an examination, "many half-taught young people, with little or no professional attainments, having but slight comprehension of the needs of country life, hold places in the schools and keep down standards of efficiency" (4, p. 22).

Since many states were unable, from either official reports or personal letters, to furnish statistics on the educational qualifications of their teachers, the following selection in the tables is made from among those reports with the best-arranged and most usable statistics. Group I of Table I represents the conditions in the state as a whole. It may be noted that in each state represented, the proportion of college or normal-school graduates is very small; and the additional number who have had either part college or part normal training is not great enough to indicate adequate standards of preparation. Completion of a full high-school course is relatively low, and the percentage with part high-school or with elementary education only is far too high. In Illinois one in six has had less than a high-school course; in Iowa one in three; in Kansas one in five. Stated a little differently, Illinois has 56 per cent who have had more than a high-school course; Iowa, 34.4 per cent; Kansas, 39 per cent. Several of these states have a predominantly large proportion with less than a full high-school course: West Virginia has 43.6 per cent; Texas (for the state as a whole), 54 per cent;

Tennessee, 63 per cent. The proportion of teachers with more than a high-school course in West Virginia is 43.4 per cent, in Tennessee 16 per cent, and in Texas, 23 per cent. The percentage of college or normal graduates ranges from 12 for Tennessee to 25 for Illinois.

TABLE I

ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

(Figures are percentages)

State	Common School Only	Part High School	Full High School	Part Normal	Full Normal	Part College	Full College
Group I:							
Illinois* (1915)	7.5	8.5	28	19	17	7.7	8
Iowa (1915)	5.4	26.3	33.9	.....	.....	23	11.4
Kansas (1915)	.....	21	40	.....	8	.....	12
Tennessee† (1914)	.....	63	21	.....	7	.....	5
West Virginia‡ (1914)	.....	43.6	12.6	.....	13	.....	3
Group II:							
Missouri (1915)							
Town	11	16	72	28	54§	.....	.....
Country	32	47	21	46	10‖	.....	.....
Texas (1912)							
Town	.....	25	31.5	.....	25.5	.....	18
Country	.....	70.8	16.5	.....	8.6	.....	3.2
Group III:							
Maryland (1915)							
Elementary (not including Baltimore)	12.7	20.7	33.7	22.7¶	4.8	3.2	2.1
High school	0.7	5.1	13.1	20.4¶	2.5	20.7	37.4

* Three per cent (both college and normal).

† Four per cent unknown.

‡ 27.2 per cent unknown.

§ Eighteen per cent, with less than 8 weeks' normal work.

‖ Forty-four per cent, with less than 8 weeks' normal work.

¶ Part normal and non-standard normal combined.

Group II of Table I shows the difference between rural and urban communities. In Missouri 27 per cent of the town teachers and 79 per cent of the country teachers have less than a high-school preparation; in Texas 25 per cent of the town teachers and 70.8 per cent of the country teachers have less than a high-school preparation. In the rural schools of Texas only one in eight graduated from a normal school or college, and only three in ten completed a high school or better. In the independent districts two out of every five have completed a normal-school or college course, and three out of every four have finished high school or

better. Twice as many town teachers have completed the high-school course as have rural teachers; three times as many town teachers completed the normal-school course and six times as many town teachers graduated from college. In the rural schools of Texas 91.04 per cent of the teachers held temporary certificates, and 8.96 per cent held permanent certificates. In the urban schools 58.14 per cent held temporary certificates, and 41.08 per cent held permanent certificates. A similar situation is found in Oklahoma, where 25 per cent of the rural teachers hold first-grade certificates,

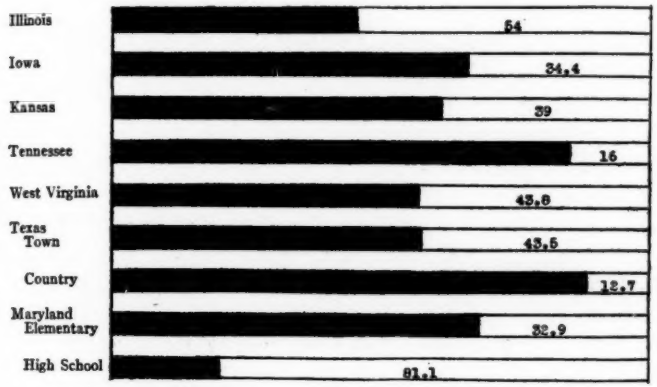

CHART I.—Academic and professional training. Black bars indicate high-school training or less; light bars, more than high-school training. Figures show percentages.

while 74 per cent of the city teachers hold first-grade certificates. In Chart I, the black bars represent the percentage of teachers with high-school preparation or less. The numbers are the percentages of those with more than high-school training. The average of the nine cases is 60 per cent with high-school preparation or less and 40 per cent with more than high-school preparation, only a part of which can be called professional training.

In Missouri, it may be noted that three and one-half times as many town teachers had graduated from the high school as had country teachers, and four and one-half times as many town teachers had completed the normal-school course. Under part

normal, Table I, Group II, for Missouri is classed work of eight, sixteen, or thirty-two weeks. One and one-half times as many rural teachers had part normal, and 44 per cent of the rural teachers had less than eight weeks' normal training against the 18 per cent of town teachers. In the 1914 report the study of the preparation of 1,079 teachers in 61 teacher-training towns in Missouri showed that one-half of the teachers in the elementary grades are graduates of the local high school; more than 90 per cent have had some professional training in addition to their high-school work; 70 per cent have attended a normal school, one-half of these teachers for a period of one year or more. The study of 515 rural teachers in these same counties indicated that "three-fourths of these teachers are rural in every sense—educated in the country with country-school methods and now teaching in the country, using the same methods very largely. . . . . Seven per cent have no training above the eighth grade. This should be very appreciably increased to represent the actual number who have no high-school work. A teacher whose only training outside of the elementary grades consists of a few weeks of review of the common branches in a local school, preparatory to examination, has really no high-school work. Fifty-five per cent attended a state normal school, almost half of these for a period of one year or more" (5, pp. 323–24).

In the Maryland survey, as shown in Group III, Table I, there is the division of the teachers (white) into elementary (not including Baltimore) and high-school teachers. Of the 3,000 white elementary teachers, one in eight had only an elementary education, one in five had a year or two in high school, and one in three had completed high school, while less than one in twenty had received a standard normal training. "Of the rest, some have received an irregular normal training; a few have been to college, and still fewer through college. Grouping together standard normal, part college, and college graduates, about 10 per cent of the elementary teachers of Maryland—not more—may be called well trained; not quite one-third could on a stretch be called fairly well trained; at least one-third are practically untrained" (6, p. 60). In the case of the high-school teachers (white) it is stated that "not exceeding two-fifths of the regular high-school teachers of the state may be

described as adequately prepared; a second two-fifths are from one to four years short, though they have had some kind of training—a partial college or normal-school course, for example; the remaining fifth are woefully lacking in proper preparation, being made up of those who have had only a high-school education, a part normal course, or some similarly inadequate and ill-adjusted preparation" (6, pp. 63–64).

Table II is a combination of six separate tables taken from the Wisconsin report of 1915. The system of standardization of

TABLE II

TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN WISCONSIN

	Counties—Exclusive of City Superintendents				Under City Superintendents	
	Rural Schools	State Graded Schools	Grades Below High School	High School in Country	City Schools	Free High School
Number of teachers	6,635	1,479	1,197	962	5,123	1,821
	Per-centage	Per-centage	Per-centage	Per-centage	Per-centage	Per-centage
1. Full college course	0.3	1.6	2	47.2	17.1	55.8
2. Part college course	1.2	3.4	3.1	7.2	1.7	.....
3. Full normal course	1.9	28.3	44.8	41.3	54	31.9
4. Full elementary-normal course	1.5	4.3	5.8	0.8	3.2	89.7
5. Full rural course at normal	2.9	0.6	0.1	.....	.....	.....
6. Part normal course	16.5	19.4	15.6	3	4.4	.....
7. Full county-training course	20.9	14	5.8	.....	1	.....
8. Part county-training course	4.3	2.5	0.6	.....	0.4	.....
9. Full teacher's training in high school	2.2	1.5	0.7	.....	0.8	.....
10. Full high-school course	40.5	21.9	19.9	0.4	9.7	.....
11. Part high-school course	8.2	2	1.1	.....	0.5	.....
12. Common school only	1.6	0.4	0.5	.....	.....	.....
13. Technical school	.....	.....	.....	.....	4.8	8.4
14. Not included in the foregoing	.....	.....	.....	.....	2.5	2.9

schools divides them into rural schools, which usually consist of one room; when such schools become more than one-room schools with certain requirements as to equipment and grade of teaching, they are classed as state graded schools, which may have all twelve grades, but are still under the supervision of the county superintendent. It may be noted from Chart II that in the rural school 51.7 per cent of the teachers have had some professional training; in the state graded schools 75 per cent, in the grades below high

school 78.5 per cent, and in the city schools 82.6 per cent have had more or less professional training. The high schools under the county superintendent and the free high schools under city superintendents have each approximately 90 per cent who are either normal or college graduates.

From the report of the high schools of Idaho, it is found that in the large and medium four-year high schools approximately 90 per cent of the teachers are either normal or college graduates. In the small four-year high schools 80 per cent, in the three-year high schools 75 per cent, and in the two-year high schools or less, 50 per cent or less are college or normal graduates. Shideler's study of

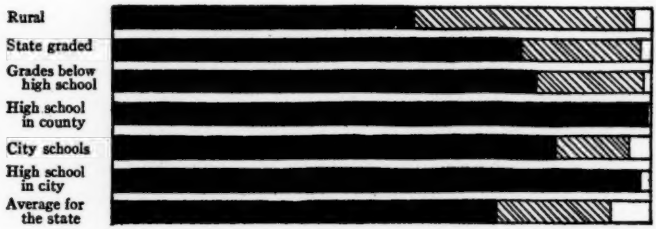

CHART II.—Training of teachers in Wisconsin. Black is number with more or less professional training; stripes, with full high school.

accredited high schools in Indiana shows that the proportion of teachers without an academic degree decreases, and those with university degrees increases, directly with the size of the city. Cities of 2,500 or under require less than one-half the training required by the larger cities (7). Deffenbaugh's study of the smaller cities shows that 69 per cent of the school boards require high-school teachers to be college graduates; 55 per cent will employ these graduates without experience; 36 per cent require their elementary-school teachers to be normal graduates; "and where a normal diploma is not required, only 48 per cent require a high-school diploma"; 14 per cent will employ high-school graduates without experience (8, pp. 82–83).

A decade ago Cubberley stated that "so large is the number who teach but a short time, so easy is it to enter upon the work of

teaching, in most states without the necessity of any training of a professional nature, that the number of trained teachers actually teaching in different states is not large. Perhaps, averaging all the different states of the Union, 15 to 20 per cent of all the teachers in our schools have secured special training before entering the work of a teacher. The remaining 80 to 85 per cent have been prepared by private study, and tested wholly by examination and experience, and have had no special professional preparation whatever for the work of teaching" (9, p. 8). These conditions have not changed very greatly for the country as a whole since Coffman shows that "three-fifths of the men and two-fifths of the women in rural schools have less than a high-school education, only one out of a hundred has a college education. One-half of the men and one-third of the women in town, one-fifth of the men and one-sixth of the women in the city have less than a high-school education" (10, p. 255).

The data given in the preceding paragraphs indicate that the average educational qualification of the teaching population is low, very much lower than our best standards of preparation, and that the degree of inadequacy of the preparation varies directly with the density of the population of the unit of administration—the worst conditions are found in the rural communities, and the best in the larger cities.

B. TENURE OF THE TEACHING POPULATION

The data on the tenure of the teaching population are likewise extremely meager, though a few states have carefully tabulated their statistics. Many of the untrained, unsuccessful teachers drop out; some of the most successful teachers push on to better places; other changes occur on account of death, resignation, or expansion of the school system, so that the teaching population is in a constant flux. The annual migration of teachers is so great that it presents one of the gravest of educational problems.

Table III and Chart III present the data on tenure in the same district. With the exception of the town teachers in Missouri and the free high schools in Wisconsin the length of tenure in the same position is much less than two years. In the country schools of

Missouri 84 per cent served in the same district two years or less; in the rural schools of Wisconsin 88 per cent served two years or less; and in the one-room schools of Louisiana 92 per cent served two years or less. In Missouri's study of town teachers it was found that "the average tenure is nearly five years. Forty per cent of all have a tenure of five or more years." In the study of the rural teachers, it was found that "the average tenure is one and eight-tenths years, a little less than a third of the tenure of grade

TABLE III

LENGTH OF SERVICE IN THE SAME DISTRICT

State	One Year	Two Years	Three Years	Four Years	Five or More Years	Percentage Two Years or Less
Illinois (1913)	36	16	8	5	33	52
Louisiana (1913–14)	46	16	10	4	23	62
Louisiana (1914–15)						
One-room schools	74	18	6	1	3	92
Total teachers (New Orleans excluded)	55	20	10	4	11	75
Wisconsin (1914)						
Rural	64	24	2	3	8	88
State graded	49	25	12	5	9	74
Grades below high school	37	24	13	8	18	61
High school	50	23	12	5	10	73
City teachers	23.2	15.3	11.2	7.3	43.1	38.5
Free high schools	44	24	12	6	14	68
Missouri (1915)						
Town	27	15	10	7	41	42
Country	64	20	7	5	4	84

teachers" (5, pp. 323–24). In Chart III the black bars give the percentage of teachers with two years of service or less in the same district; the remainder of the bar gives the percentage with more than two years of service. The average of the twelve cases is 62.5 per cent with the tenure of two years or less.

The survey of 1,153 teachers of one-room schools in 31 counties of Washington in 1914 showed that 280 teachers were in the same district as the preceding year, 304 were in the same county but in different districts, 341 were not teaching, and the remainder had moved from the county. This indicates that only 25 per cent were in the same district and only 50 per cent were teaching even in the same county. Foght summarizes the results of his study of the

tenure of rural teachers as follows: the total number of months taught was 45.4; the number of months in the present position was 12.2; the average number of different schools taught was 3.4 with 13.8 months in each school, or less than two years of 140 days each, or less than one calendar year (4). The Better Iowa Schools Commission (1912) found that the length of time teachers remain in the profession was but 3.8 years and that 72 per cent of the rural schools had a new teacher each year and that a third of these schools had three different teachers each year. In Texas some

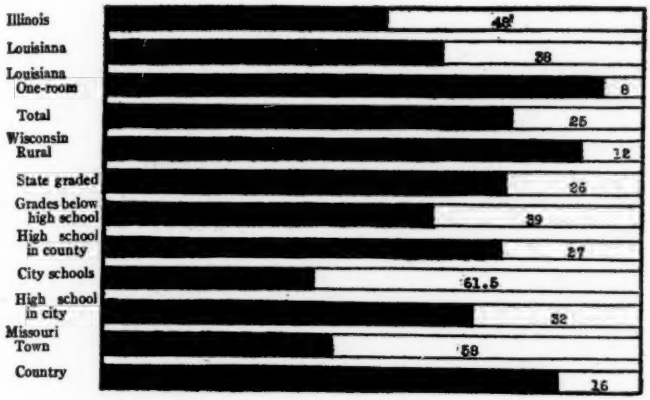

CHART III.—Length of service in the same district. Black bars indicate percentage with two years' experience or less; light bars indicate more than two years' experience. Figures show percentages.

85 per cent of the rural teachers are new to their positions each year. It is not improbable that 75 per cent of the rural teachers and 50 per cent of the town teachers shift positions each year. In this shift of the teaching population Coffman finds that of the 1,178 men studied,

48.1 per cent are at the present time teaching in the country, but 83 per cent of them began there; 35.7 per cent are teaching in towns and villages, but only 13 per cent of them started there; 16.2 per cent are in the cities, but only 4 per cent of them commenced there. Of the 68 per cent of the 4,037 women who started in the country, but 41.6 per cent have remained there; 18 per cent began in towns and villages, but 32.6 per cent are teaching upon

this level now; and although only 14 per cent of them began their careers in cities, 25.8 per cent are teaching in cities. Apparently the raw recruit gets his or her initial experience in the rural or semi-urban schools [11, p. 22].

In this shift there are certain time and training correlations which Coffman describes thus:

Fifty per cent of the men and 70 per cent of the women who go from the country to town, shift within the first five years. Fifty per cent of the men who go from the country to town and from town to city, spend less than three years in the country schools, and less than four years in town. Fifty-seven per cent of the ambitious women teach less than two years in the country, 85 per cent less than four years in the country; 39 per cent teach less than two years, and 67 per cent less than four years in town. The shift is directly related to the amount of training. This averages four years in the country above the elementary school, five years from country to the town to city; six years from country to city directly; and seven years directly from town to city [10, p. 237].

The teacher should not be prevented from enjoying the free right of contract in the selection of fields of labor; but when changes are made, greater efficiency should accrue to both teacher and school. Much of the present shifting is wasteful beyond computation, and the gain thereof is far less than has generally been supposed. Reed states that "the financial loss to the districts through lack of continuation in organization and management, and the educational wastes from the frequent changes are appalling. The financial gain and the professional advancement of the people making the changes, on the whole, have been slight." "No other business could survive under the same conditions. The only reason why this form persists is because the mistakes and losses are not so evident and so the responsibility is not located" (12, p. 5). The superintendent of Louisiana reports:

In the matter of tenure in the same position the situation is very bad, indeed. The teachers wander from parish to parish and from school to school, few remaining in the same position longer than one or two years. Teachers seem to fail to see that every year's service in a school adds to their opportunities for good work, and patrons and school officials apparently take the view that continuous service on a job adds nothing to the ability of the employee to do the work well. Excluding the teachers of New Orleans, where positions are permanent, 2,563, or 56 per cent of the teaching corps, were in their positions for the first year. Excluding beginners, the figures mean that 1,800 white teachers "swapped" positions. There are not more than a hundred

teachers in the state, excluding New Orleans, who have been teaching in the same positions ten years or longer. It is due the teachers and especially the children, that we organize to retain worthy, competent teachers permanently in the same positions. My judgment is that the state will find it necessary to take the initiative in this matter by subsidizing the salaries of those teachers who cure themselves of the wanderlust, and remain permanently in their positions [13, p. 15, 1913–14].

To secure the longer tenure, the Wisconsin legislature in 1915 passed an enactment which provides that any rural-school teacher who is retained in the same school after the first year shall receive from the state funds $2 per month in addition to the salary paid by the district; if retained after the second year, $4 per month; if retained after the third year, $8 per month for that and each succeeding year. The successful rural-school teachers who are graduates of a rural-school course of a normal training equivalent to two years above the high school are entitled to state aid of $10 per month for the first year, and to $15 per month for each succeeding year in which the school is successfully taught.

The inexperienced teacher takes any position with the intention of getting experience in order to move on to a bigger place the next year, and so on the year following. The effect of this procedure is disastrous to the rural and village communities which annually afford this practice and experience to function in some larger and richer community. This apprentice year would not be so expensive to the smaller community if, after having profited by the experience thus gained, the teacher remained long enough in the community to render real service in solving local educational problems. The financial loss to the community in the cost of reorganization and the wastes consequent upon this apprenticeship system is sufficient to warrant a public campaign to secure the permanent location in the service of the locality.

Limited as is the tenure in the elementary and rural schools, it is no worse than is the tenure of high-school teachers. In the high schools of Nebraska 44 per cent of the teachers were new to their positions last year, and 75 per cent have taught in the same place four years or less (12). In the accredited high schools of both Indiana and Illinois 50 per cent of the teachers had a tenure of two years or less. In the largest cities of Indiana "almost one-fifth of

the positions were filled last year, while the number amounted to almost three-fifths in the smaller towns" (14). The tenure of teachers in the high schools of the North Central Association is as follows: "In Wisconsin out of 800 teachers, 46 per cent were new to their positions last year; in Colorado, 44 per cent; in Iowa, 37 per cent; in Indiana, 40 per cent" (14, p. 521). Shideler's study of the accredited high schools of Indiana showed that, in cities of 5,000 or under, more than one-half of the teachers have served only one year in their present positions. In seeking the causes of this shifting, he found high correlation between salaries and density of population. Coffman and Jessup found that "there is a direct correlation between the salary paid and the size of the place, and that the variability and range are greater in the larger places than in smaller places" (15, p. 114). Since the larger communities give larger financial return and greater social opportunities, many teachers find their reward in moving to such places, for too frequently communities will not adequately reward high merit.

Not only is the tenure of the teachers in any one position extremely limited, but the appalling fact is that their supervisor and administrative heads have a tenure just as limited. In Nebraska nearly one-half of the high-school principals are new to their positions each year, and 85 per cent have served three years or less in their present positions (12). Shideler found that 45 per cent of the principals of the accredited high schools of Indiana were new to their positions—one-third in the larger cities and two-thirds in the smaller towns. In commenting upon the short tenure of the principal, a government report states that some schools have as many as two to four principals in a single year, and the different types of administration have shown that the succession of unfinished experiments has proved disastrous to both pupil and school.

The case of the superintendent shows a slight improvement, but when one considers the greater responsibility of the office, the shortness of the tenure presents one of the most perplexing problems of school administration. In the 190 village schools of Nebraska only one superintendent has served more than ten years; two-thirds of the superintendents have served two years or less, and one-third are new to their positions this year. In the second- and

higher-class cities 50 per cent of the superintendents are serving their first or second years. The high average of four years for these superintendents is explained by the fact that the total number is small, and a few have served terms long enough greatly to raise the general average (12). The median years of tenure for superintendents of the 250 accredited schools of Iowa was less than two years, and in the 758 non-accredited schools 40 per cent were new to their positions and 70 per cent had been in their positions two years or less. Data published in 1912 by the government concerning 1,200 superintendents employed in cities of 4,000 and over showed that one-fourth had served two years or less, and only one-half had served four years or more (14). Deffenbaugh found in his study of the school systems of small cities that the tenure of the superintendents is very unstable; of 1,202 superintendents, 567 had been in their positions less than five years, 380 from five to ten years, and only 255 more than ten years; while one-fourth had served two years or less in the same position (8). The median number of years of tenure for 186 superintendents in Indiana cities in 1912 was 2.16 years. The median number of years of tenure in Indiana cities taken at ten-year intervals was: for 1864, 1.8 years; for 1874, 2.5 years; for 1884, 2.3 years; for 1894, 2.4 years; for 1904, 2.9 years (14). When as many as one-third to one-half of the heads of our city schools change annually, the situation is serious enough to demand nation-wide concern and consideration.

The data obtainable on the tenure of county superintendents are even more limited, though information at hand shows a tenure no more extended than among city superintendents. The terms of office for the county superintendent as given in 1909 are as follows: in 23 states and 2 territories the term was two years; in 3 states, three years; in 13 states, four years. In two states constitutional provisions prohibit more than two terms, and in many others custom demands the same rotation of office. The prevalence of the short term or of limiting the number of short terms destroys unity and continuity of school procedure and prevents the formulation and execution of long-time educational policies. Only 23 states require the county superintendent to hold as much as a first-grade

certificate; the remainder prescribe no qualifications. So long as the superintendency is a political office, with regular rotation and no professional outlook for higher advancement, unless it be some political office, short tenure and inefficient superintendents will be the result. Removal from political dictation, tenure during efficiency, and liberation of the office from petty limitations will go a long way toward increasing the length of tenure service and the quality of the county superintendent.

The boards of education in cities frequently have short tenures, for in certain states constitutional, legal, or customary provisions limit the length of the term of appointment or election and the number of terms that may be served. The usual organization of the board of education has been either the annual or the biennial election of the entire membership. Such a condition prevents the development of any continued constructive policy, for when the term of office is short, school business must be considered in terms of present expediency. In many cities there has been an incessant struggle to secure changes in the membership of the board in order that new movements may be started or certain funds may be used. If the community intends to secure an efficient school system, it must make its school officers as permanent as the well-organized industrial enterprise with its stable policy and centralized control.

The office of the state superintendent is likewise subject to a short term, or few terms of service. The data (1909) show that a few states elect the superintendent annually; the term of office in 19 states is two years; in 3 states, three years; in 19 states, four years. Since 1853, the tenure of office for state superintendents in Illinois averages nearly four years, though the term was extended to four years in 1870, and of the last two incumbents the former served two terms and the latter is serving his third term. The short term does not necessarily mean short continuance in office, as Pennsylvania and Massachusetts have had short terms and long continuation. There is a marked tendency for a longer term and a longer tenure for the superintendent or commissioner.

The state boards of education have been, in some cases, little more than a formal organization, with most of the members *ex officio*, usually the chief officers of state. At the present time there

is a tendency for reorganization, eliminating the political *ex officio* type and enlarging the scope of the duties of the board and the length of tenure of the individual members. A few states still have short tenures of two, three, or four years, but the term is being lengthened, for it is recognized that the most effective boards have long terms and few contemporary changes.

After the consideration of the short tenure of the teachers, the principals, the superintendents, the county superintendent and state superintendents, and boards of education both local and state, one cannot help wondering that our educational system works as well as it does. Our entire educational corps is a fluctuating, migrating, nomadic body with neither permanency of tenure nor continuity of policy. The reorganization of our present system with better-qualified teachers, supervisors, and public overseers, and a relatively permanent administration and long efficient service on the part of each member of our educational system seems to be the crying need in this country.

[*To be continued*]

METHODS AND CONTENT OF COURSES IN HISTORY IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES

(*Concluded*)

HUGO H. GOLD
State University of Iowa

NOTEBOOKS

The Commission on Accredited Schools and Colleges of the North Central Association recommends that history should be taught as a disciplinary, as well as an educational, subject. One of the methods used by teachers in making history a disciplinary subject is the requirement of notebooks. Some teachers report constant drill in the usual forms of note-taking with special reference to college work.

Only 78 teachers say they *require* the use of a permanent notebook in *all* courses, 34 say that it is a matter of choice and not compulsion, while 14 say that a notebook is required in all except first-year classes, and 9 say that it is required only in first-year classes.

a) *Advantages of keeping notebooks.*—Table II is an estimate of the advantages of keeping a notebook as given by 111 teachers of history.

TABLE II

Advantages	Frequency
Fixes subject in mind (crystallized information)	23
Unification and classification of material (organizing ability)	22
Especially valuable for review	21
Develops good habits of study: order, promptness, neatness, accuracy, etc.	21
Helps in getting the important points (essentials)	13
Serves as a reference and guide (textbook supplement)	13
Develops power of evaluating material	11
Aids the memory	9
Correlates events and facts	8
Encourages more intensive and careful reading	7
Gives teacher a check on student's work	7
Stimulates interest	6
Pupils take interest in *handwork* (motor expression)	5
Furnishes definite requirement for preparation	4
Aids logical and original thinking	4
Helps to visualize the subject	3
Is a time-saver	1
None given	24

It should be noted that there is great disagreement as to the merits of note-taking. The greatest difficulty in the final solution of the problem hinges upon having the notebook *properly kept.* If students cheat or copy or prepare the notebooks for the teacher's benefit and not for their own, this sort of work is worse than useless.

b) Disadvantages of keeping notebooks.—Table III consists of the opinions of 74 high-school teachers on the evils or disadvantages of keeping notebooks.

TABLE III

Disadvantages	Frequency
Wastes time which might be better spent	41
Pupils often degenerate into mere copyists (cheating)	26
Pupils too dependent upon notebooks (hinders or weakens memory)	16
Takes too much of teacher's time and energy	14
Pupils get the mechanics of notebook making rather than the substance of history	11
Deadens interest in history if too detailed	6
Liable to become mere drudgery	5
Results have been unsatisfactory	4
When finished it contains very little or nothing of permanent value	4
An irksome bore to many students if not used rightly	2
Notebook prepared for teacher's benefit rather than pupil's	2
Tabulated facts are not necessarily ideas (mental sloth)	2
Inability to find notebook and method of keeping it that approaches our ideal	2
Positive detriment if not carefully examined and graded by teacher	1
"Loses spirit in the letter of the work"	1
Written reports and individual consultation better	1
May lead to unnecessary repetition	1
None given	61

From Table III it appears that there is a prevalent feeling that the notebook is worked overtime. It is a safe assertion that close scrutiny, careful instruction, and supervision are necessary to get the best results from notebooks. By careful instruction we do not mean that the notebooks should be prepared according to some minute directions. It is better to allow the students to use as much originality as possible, working out notebooks to suit their individual needs.

c) Grading of notebooks.—Eighty-nine teachers say that the notebook, when used, is examined and graded, 10 say that it is not, and 4 say that it is examined but not graded. Ten fail to state whether it is examined and graded, and the remaining 26 never use the notebook.

d) What is entered in the notebook.—Outlines of one kind or another were most frequently mentioned. These are usually outlines of the textbook or of collateral reading. This was rather a surprising discovery. The Commission on Accredited Schools and Colleges recommends that notebooks or cards be kept by the pupil, showing a record of the work done, this record to consist of (1) sketch maps made by the pupils as illustrations of their studies, (2) references to important material, (3) extracts from primary and secondary authorities, and (4) informal notes on reading done in connection with the course.

In the majority of schools the spirit of these recommendations is being observed in a limited way, but the fact that more teachers (44) mention "outlines" than any other one thing seems to indicate that notebook work is made too tedious. In addition to outlines the following are some of the other things entered in the notebooks in the order of frequency in practice. Notes on collateral reading (40), maps (37), important points emphasized in class (22), reports made in class on special topics (20), notes on classroom lectures (11), notes from reports made in class by other pupils (10), tabulation, statistics, charts, diagrams, graphs (9), summaries of special topics or periods (7), cartoons, pictures, art drawings (7), notes dictated by teacher (6), original themes, essays, or sketches (6), newspaper clippings referring to history (5), significant dates (5), reference notes for collateral reading (bibliography) (4), questions for review (4), etc.

e) Additional notebook suggestions.—If notebooks are required, careful supervision would render the work more profitable.

Notebooks prepared with mechanical precision according to minute directions are of questionable value. Let the notebook, as far as possible, be an expression of the individuality of the pupil. The pupil should feel that the notebook is solely for his own benefit.

One means of reducing the amount of copying or cheating is to require that the notes be handed in as soon as finished, a premium being placed upon promptness.

Newspaper clippings, cartoons, diagrams, etc., entered in the notebooks may cause pupils to take pride in their work.

In the state of New York a maximum credit of 10 per cent in the Regents' examination is given for history notebooks. In some

schools in that state the notebooks count for 50 per cent of the day's recitation once a week.

It would seem better to emphasize a few important things to be placed in the notebooks and not require a complete outline of the textbook. "A topical notebook condensed" so that the notes will be serviceable to the pupils in reviewing and in assimilating the main facts approaches the ideal.

SOURCE MATERIALS

In reply to the question, "Do you use source materials?" 113 teachers answered in the affirmative, 9 failed to answer the question, and 13 answered negatively, ranging from an unqualified "No" to answers like "No, not to any extent by pupils."

a) *Extent and manner of using sources.*—The North Central Association recommends that one-fourth of the collateral reading consist of source material. Teachers are either not aware of this recommendation or are not observing it. While sources are being used in many schools, more especially in American history, 45 per cent of the teachers make very little or no use of source material. Thirty-two teachers use it only for illustrative purposes in the classroom, either reading or lecturing to the class to explain the method of using sources. In 10 instances sources are used practically not at all on account of lack of material.

b) *Character of sources used.*—Source books constitute by far the greatest amount of source material used in high schools. Copies of original documents, reprints, and translations are frequently used. Some use is made of old letters, diaries, periodicals, pictures, and curios. In two cases the testimony of old settlers was mentioned.

Among the source books mentioned in the order of frequency were Hart's *Contemporaries*, Hart's *Source Book*, Robinson's *Readings on European History*, Cheyney's *Readings on English History*, Davis' *Readings on Greek and Roman History*, McDonald's *Selected Charters and Documents*, Munro's *Source Book on Roman History*, Henderson's *Source Book*, and Kendall's *Source Book*.

c) *Purpose of using source material.*—Table IV shows the aim or purpose in the use of sources, being an evaluation by 135 teachers.

It will be noted that motivation, first-hand information, the visualization of history, and "local color" or "setting" are the aims most frequently given.

The historical and educational associations throughout the country recognize the value of sources. Textbook writers emphasize their use by giving many references to source materials and

TABLE IV

Purpose	Frequency
To make history real and vital	22
To stimulate interest (motivation)	20
First-hand and additional information	18
To get the spirit of the times (local color)	18
Comparison of authorities and independent judgment	15
To illustrate method of writing history	14
To correct mistaken ideas	10
Acquaint students with the different kinds of historical materials	8
Illumination of the textbook	7
To make impressions stronger	7
Training in historical criticism and interpretation	5
To broaden pupil's viewpoint	5
Encourage habit of investigation	5
To cultivate the historical sense or attitude	4
To visualize events	3
To get the connected and complete story	2
To give atmosphere	2
To give slight training in research work	2
As a basis for written work	1

special topics. Some teachers are of the opinion that high-school pupils are too immature to use the sources, while others are handicapped by lack of material and time.

OTHER AIDS AND DEVICES

a) *Maps and map drawing.*—In answer to the question, "Is map drawing required in all history courses?" 102 teachers answered with an unqualified "Yes." Three failed to answer the question, 2 do not require map drawing at all, and the remaining 28 require maps in some courses but not in others. The custom seems to be to require from ten to twenty-five maps per year, usually outline maps completed by the pupils, but in many cases freehand or sketch maps drawn from memory or without a copy.

The data entered in maps was tabulated under four divisions, the numbers in parentheses indicating the frequency with which a given item was mentioned: (1) territorial changes after wars or treaties (25); (2) battle fields, military routes, and campaigns (20);

(3) important places, such as cities, rivers, mountains, states, countries, and their colonies, and location of important historical events (19); (4) commercial or trade routes, vocations, dates (8). In the opinion of the writer the importance of these is in the reverse order. According to reports of teachers of history, the purposes of map drawing are to develop a definite sense of location and proportion, and of geographical relations of history, and to make the work more definite and concrete by the visualization of history. Geographical "background" is necessary to a proper understanding of history.

b) Special devices for locating and correlating events in time.—There is a tendency to learn only the important dates, then relate other events to these. Table V gives the frequency with which special devices were reported by 135 high-school teachers.

TABLE V

Devices	Frequency
Key dates learned, deductions drawn to approximate others	21
Chronological charts or tables	18
Charts (made by pupils mostly)	14
Outlines (made by pupils mostly)	10
Parallel chronological tables showing history in different countries going on at the same time	11
Parallel history in different countries. Cross references and correlations	10
Drills, repetitions, reviews	10
Large associations of persons and events	9
Diagrams	6
Reasoning by cause and effect	6
Association of things, dates, places, and actions	4
Associating dates by peculiarity of words or figures	3
Constant reference to other history courses, e.g., American history is studied with European background	1
Discussion or quiz	1
Connect everything with the present as far as possible	1
"Twenty-five most important dates in history"	1
Parallel lines to show relation of Greek and Roman history	1
List of presidents or kings with three most important events of each administration or reign thoroughly memorized	1
No special devices (nothing new to report)	16
No answer	42

Table V is self-explanatory. Only 12 teachers give a definite estimate of the number of dates memorized in each course, these varying from six to about fifteen or twenty important ones each year.

c) Devices for teaching civics.—The prevailing devices in the teaching of civics to secure concreteness and motivation are visits to local institutions (courts, state legislature, city council and jail, voting places, etc.), dramatization (mock trials and congresses, town meetings, elections, city councils, etc.), and the study of illustrative materials (charters, constitutions, government bulletins, congressional records, addresses, etc.). Other devices were special talks to class by officials, debates, class organized for accomplishment of some civic work, prize essays and original themes on national questions.

d) Correlation of history with other subjects.—Of the teachers who reported, 100 make definite attempts to correlate history with other subjects. Twelve failed to answer the question, while the remaining 23 make very little or no effort at correlation. There is a definite attempt to correlate history with English and literature, but there is little uniformity in practice with reference to other subjects. A very common practice is for the English teacher to give credit for themes which the pupils have written in history courses, or for the English department to use historical topics for themes. One teacher mentions giving history reports and papers to English teacher for criticism. Another says that the assignments of reading in history and English are made to dovetail wherever possible.

American history and American literature are often studied at the same time thus furnishing an opportunity for cross references and correlation. Another method is to show the relationship of poems and novels to history, to refer to the development of literature during a particular historical epoch, or to study the writers of a given period. In many instances mention was made of using mythology, especially in the study of Greek history. Gayley's *Classical Myths* is a favorite source for this.

In studying Roman history first-year students take an interest in the relationship of Latin, which they are just beginning, to history. In one case it was stated that Latin pupils talk to the history class on Roman life, Caesar's war engines, etc. Geography is correlated largely through map drawing by the pupils, through wall maps, and through the discussion of the influence of geographical

features, climatic conditions, resources, etc., upon people, countries, manners, and customs.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS TO PART II

III. *As to materials and methods.*—

1. Not one-half of the high schools have reached the standard minimum requirements of the North Central Association with respect to the number of volumes of supplementary works on history.

2. At any given time approximately one-half of all high-school pupils are taking work in history courses. There is great variability in methods of teaching history, the most common methods being "topical" and "chronological."

3. The prevailing tendency is to recognize the textbook merely as a guide or outline to be supplemented by collateral reading and other materials. The textbook is considered as a standard of minimum requirements, and the pupil is held directly responsible for a mastery of its contents.

4. The North Central Association has a definite standard of minimum requirements of collateral reading in the various courses in history. In the United States as a whole 30 per cent of those making a definite estimate require less than this minimum.

5. In regard to intensive and extensive reading there is great variability in practice. The consensus of opinion seems to be in favor of greater emphasis of intensive reading for high-school pupils.

6. The most common methods of testing collateral reading are general class reports, oral and written examinations, notebooks, and occasional themes.

7. Practice furnishes no index as to the relative worth of primary and secondary works for collateral reading. About one-half of the teachers report that historical fiction and poetry are used in a limited manner, usually recommended, but not required. Biography is used quite extensively in American history. Magazines and newspapers are used for collateral reading to a considerable extent in advanced history classes.

8. Most teachers consider collateral reading a very important part of effective history teaching. Many are handicapped by lack of time and improper library facilities.

9. A prevalent method for self-expression by the pupil is the requirement of oral and written reports, the consensus of opinion being that the best results are derived from the former.

10. Teachers are at variance as to the relative advantages and disadvantages of keeping notebooks. Most teachers, however, require notebooks in all courses in history. If the standard of the North Central Association is correct, too many outlines are required to be placed in notebooks.

11. The North Central Association advises that one-fourth of the collateral reading be source material. In the United States as a whole 45 per cent of the high schools make little or no use of the sources. In the schools which use the sources there is great lack of uniformity as to the extent and manner of using them.

IV. *As to special aids and devices.*—

1. Pictures and postcards, the stereopticon and stereoscope, moving pictures, myths and stories, travel reports, industrial exhibits, old relics, old settlers' testimony, etc., constitute some of the supplements in history teaching, some of these being quite frequently mentioned.

2. Maps and map drawing were mentioned by 102 teachers as special aids in history work.

3. Chronological charts, outlines and diagrams, drills, reviews, and cross references are used extensively in locating and correlating events in time.

4. The prevailing practice among teachers seems to be to require the memorizing of only a few of the more important or epoch-making dates and to relate other events to these.

5. To secure concreteness and motivation in the teaching of civics the prevailing devices are the emphasis of community civics and current events, visits to local institutions, dramatization, and the study of illustrative materials.

6. Many teachers make special efforts to correlate history with English, literature, language, geography, and other subjects. With the exception of English and literature there are practically no attempts, as departments, at correlation.

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

The Scientific Study of Education

The forward movement in all branches of science during the past century may be summed up, first, as an advance toward greater objectivity; and second, as an advance toward a functional interpretation of data thus objectively studied. In natural sciences and in social sciences alike, purely subjective, a priori discussions are in disrepute, and scientists are no longer satisfied with mere classification of information. All must be interpreted in terms of results. Science desires to know, not primarily what is an institution which we are studying, but what is this institution good for, what service can it render, how does it function?

That this dual spirit of progressive scientific study is today firmly grasped by educational leaders was clearly evident in the Kansas City meeting of the Department of Principals and Superintendents. In both general and sectional meetings at Kansas City the old style "inspirational" address, so commonly found in conventions of teachers, was conspicuous by its absence. Of course a few such discussions were heard—they are as easy to make as they are useless—but the ear of the convention was given to men who were talking, not of theories, not of vague suggestions of future possibilities, but of education in terms of experiments actually under way, of evaluations made on the basis of concrete data, upon scientific surveys, and the like.

The *School Review* is glad to announce that in the near future we shall publish two of the Kansas City discussions which are entirely representative of the scientific attitude in studying educational problems, namely, "Experiments in Supervised Study," by Principal I. M. Allen, of Springfield, Illinois; and "A Plan of Quantitative and Qualitative Credit," by W. A. Bailey, of Kansas City, Kansas.

Professional Training of High-School Teachers

College students who plan to teach in high schools need to be informed that very many states prescribe a minimum of strictly professional courses. For example, Colorado requires that one-sixth of a teacher's undergraduate training shall have been professional. Iowa requires twenty semester hours, Kansas fourteen, Michigan eleven, Minnesota

twenty, Missouri fifteen, Ohio thirty, Wisconsin thirteen, and other states in proportion. In other words, in order to qualify as a high-school teacher under state laws, a candidate needs to have had three or more courses designed to give strictly professional training.

A committee of the College Teachers of Education estimates that about thirteen thousand new high-school teachers are needed each year within the territory served by the North Central Association. Unfortunately less than half of these candidates are provided with the minimum professional requirements. This fact is extremely embarrassing both to unequipped college graduates and to administrative officers. Frequently the result is personal disappointment, which can be avoided only by makeshift adjustments, or by open violation of state laws.

Two causes may be assigned for the disadvantages just named. First, college students are often uninformed as to the professional requirements, or, if they are informed, they postpone almost all the professional courses until very late in the college course, frequently too late to secure the requisite credits. The second cause is closely related to the first. College and university departments of English, history, mathematics, and the rest, are either ignorant of the state laws, or they are willing to embarrass the students by keeping them misinformed. No one can doubt that it is the duty of departments of education to insist upon wide publicity within college circles of the legal requirements. If these laws are on the statute books, students who desire to teach ought to be informed definitely before it is too late.

Subject-Matter Courses and Professional Courses

The relation between the number of subject-matter courses and of professional courses for high-school teachers seems to be settled in many states. Four or five professional units out of a total of thirty-six usually required for graduation does not seem to be an unreasonable proportion. The North Central Association of Colleges and Universities has gone on record as favoring a minimum of eleven semester hours, approximately four courses, of a professional nature. However, this minimum falls considerably below the average required by legal regulations of the eight states listed above.

If a prospective teacher needs four professional courses in his curriculum leading to a Bachelor's degree, what shall be the nature of these courses and when shall they be taken? Upon the first question a very interesting consensus of opinion was presented in Kansas City by a committee of the College Teachers of Education. One hundred school-

men, high-school principals, school superintendents, and college teachers of education, were asked to name in the order of desirability professional courses best suited for the rank and file of teachers. The result placed Educational Psychology first, Technique of Teaching second, Methods in Special Subjects third. The next three subjects in order of preference were Principles of Education, Theory of Teaching, and Principles of Secondary Education. Now it is quite obvious that the content of the last three named is practically equivalent to the content of Technique of Teaching. We are therefore not far from the average judgment if we say that there is recommended a course in the Technique of Teaching, or General Methods of Teaching, a course in Educational Psychology, and a Special Methods Course in English, history, mathematics, etc. As a fourth subject should be added, whenever possible, a course in Practice Teaching.

To the query when, and in what order, these professional courses should be elected, the answer appears relatively easy. Consensus of opinion cited above seems to be that a thorough grounding in the subject-matter of the subject to be taught is the first indispensable element in a teacher's equipment. Severe criticism, undoubtedly justified, is laid upon normal schools, in that they often load their curriculum with method courses upon a very limited number of subject-matter courses. The truth seems to be that professional courses ought to be given in the Senior year of college life. The logical order of courses appears to be General Methods, possibly in the second semester of the Junior year, Educational Psychology in the first semester of the Senior year, and if possible both a Special Methods course and Practice Teaching in the last semester. This arrangement places professional training in an easy and natural sequence, at the close of a student's college life, after his subject-matter courses have furnished him a suitable background. Moreover, the sequence named is best calculated to minimize the objections of many college departments which have not yet waked up either to the educational ends served by professional courses in education, or to the legal requirements of a growing number of states.

The Experimental School
will it teach "unblushing materialism"?

The *New York Times* is afraid that the experimental school to be established in New York under the auspices of the General Education Board will be devoted to "bread and butter education and nothing else," that the young people there trained will be "as destitute of culture as a

Hottentot," that the "modern scholar, if these theories prevail, will be a man profoundly versed in automobiles, steamship construction, bridge-building, microscopic analysis . . . . ," and that "unblushing materialism" will find "its crowning triumph in the theory of the modern school."

These fears are utterly groundless. They are so completely foreign to the thought both of the founders of the school and of its director, Dr. Caldwell, that one must suspect that an animus of carping, jealous, and vindictive opposition lies back of their expression. At any rate, the *Times* seems to have taken its clew from just such a source. Unfortunately the public at large is not in a position to realize how thoroughly must be discredited all criticisms emanating from such prejudiced witnesses.

Exactly what does the school propose to do? It proposes to make, purely in an experimental way, certain radical innovations in the curriculum. For example, these educational leaders feel that the intensive study in the secondary schools of Latin and Greek as languages does not function well. They therefore drop these studies. But the cultural aspects of the inimitable classical stories are to be given to all the pupils in the form of English translations. Instead of the spectacle of a small number of youths struggling for years over the intricacies of dead languages and never really assimilating the culture of these bygone people, we shall see that culture extended through the mother-tongue to many young people. Again, formal English grammar is to be dropped. This is indeed a startling innovation in a city which still burdens its schools with this subject, devoting in the elementary school over 40 per cent of the English time to formal grammar. By discarding the out-worn doctrine of formal discipline imparted through English grammar, the modern school does not intend that language habits shall be disregarded. The mother-tongue is to be learned "in the pupil's stride," and every teacher and every class is to be a guide for language habits. Moreover, French and German, history and civics, literature, art, music, and drama are to form an essential part of the curriculum. There is, then, no ground whatever for the fear that the education in this school will be lacking in "soul" and "vision."

There is, to be sure, one further innovation proposed upon which educational standpatters may look with suspicion. Doctor Caldwell is a scientist. He was selected partly because of this primary interest in science. The modern school will very frankly endeavor to give very much larger emphasis to scientific training as an extremely vital and

essential part of the curriculum than is possible as yet in the public schools. However, only a blind stupidity could charge such men as President Eliot, Mr. Flexler, and Dr. Caldwell with fostering a plan to make science soulless and lacking in vision. Indeed, these are the very men, supported by untold numbers of other men of vision, who believe that a rich culture, functioning directly in the minds and hearts of men, can be opened up by an intimate study of nature and her wonders. The blindness which could identify visions like these with the dead materialism of running automobiles and steamship construction can be characterized with no more expressive term than asinine.

R. L. L.

Military Drill in Central High School, Omaha

Principal J. G. Masters, describing the system of military drill which has existed in Central High School, Omaha, for twenty years, writes:

The drill is held on Mondays and Thursdays immediately after school; about forty-five minutes are used in maneuvering and fifteen minutes in assembly and dismissal. In addition, the boys occasionally appear in dress parade at some celebration given by the city. In June one week is taken from school time for intensive drill on the part of cadets who are "to go to camp." This camp is usually about twenty-five miles from home, and is given over to all forms of military discipline. The Board of Education pays our Commandant $50.00 per month, while one member of the faculty gives approximately one-third of his time to the work. Boys furnish their own uniforms and pay their own expenses at camp. The federal government furnishes carbines and ammunition for target practice.

The military work is in charge of a Major from the National Guards and cared for on the part of the school by one of our vice-principals. Three credits out of thirty-two are allowed for the four years in military drill. The student is given no credit for the first year of this work. The work in general consists of all forms of military movements in marching ranks. The officers and some of the men spend considerable study in military science. With officers this is done at the close of each drill for about fifty minutes or an hour. We now have in the military drill a total of 613 boys out of 800. The work is very popular among the boys and I think it can be said with fairness that the best boys and leaders in the high school are in the military work.

Concerning the value of the work, Mr. Masters is outspoken with one preliminary reservation.

It seems to me that it is perfectly clear that any discipline which devotes only two hours a week to the actual exercise in this training is of necessity too brief to be satisfactory. Acknowledging this shortcoming, I think everything

else must be said in favor of military drill. All of us who are constantly surveying the work observe that it does put into every boy power of decision, backbone, and something of the habit of obedience. While the work is of some value to all, it is unusually valuable for the officers. If you were to ask me whether we favor its continuance and whether it does enough good to pay for the constant care taken to keep it going effectively, I should answer emphatically, "yes."

Mr. Masters' testimony upon the relative merits of military drill and other forms of physical training is in line with the general belief. He does not think that it is superior. He says:

> Indeed, I am inclined to think that well-organized trips, in groups, across country, in which boys could spend sixty minutes each afternoon along the country roads, through forests, over mountains and streams, would be very much more desirable. Over purely gymnasium work, military training has the advantage of being out of doors.

A Supply Shop for a City School System

Among the several unique features of the Kansas City (Kansas) school system one of the most interesting and suggestive is what is called the "supply shop." In the center of the city is located a large building which looks like a machine shop or a manufacturing plant. In it are centered the activities of the superintendent of buildings and grounds and his corps of nearly one hundred janitors. Once a month in this central bureau the entire force of janitors gathers to discuss plans for greater efficiency. In the supply shop also are departments in which are stored necessary school supplies like printed blanks, medical supplies for the "first aid" departments in each school, and similar equipment. By automobile delivery trucks the needs of any school are promptly met.

In another part of the shop one finds a municipal workroom in which is gathered for renovation all school furniture which has become unfit for use. Expert workmen make over as good as new the most hopeless-looking chairs and desks. In an adjoining room is an extensive window-shade plant prepared to take care of all wants; in another expert carpenters are at work making teachers' desks and cabinets. In other parts of the buiiding are the headquarters of the school plumber, the school steam fitter, the school cement man. A force of twenty expert mechanics is kept employed the year around, and one hundred are employed during the summer. No contracts are let to private concerns, except the erection of the buildings themselves. All heating plants,

ventilation systems, furnishings, and fittings are cared for by the municipality itself.

The superintendent of buildings, W. H. Griscom, estimates an annual saving to the city of between $30,000 and $40,000 and in addition a premium upon prompt and efficient service in all matters pertaining to the physical equipment of the various school plants. Opposition of local merchants, contractors, and labor leaders has gradually diminished. It is surprising that the eight years of successful experiment made in Kansas City in this line has found no imitators.

A Plea for Sympathy

Under the title, "Comments, Cold and Kind," a college Senior writes the following:

> Much have I suffered from themes that came back with no comment. Throughout two quarters of one English course I handed in weekly papers which were projections of my own soul. Some remote, oracular reader doled me out regular grades, giving no sign that my individuality ever touched her. I felt baffled, irritated.
>
> When I studied with Dr. M., bless his heart, not a word I wrote did he overlook, though I was one in a class of seventy. Cordial, kindly little notes, in his precise hand, enlivened the margins of my papers. There was some comfort in writing for him.
>
> Just before Christmas a history paper was returned to me. I loved that essay, and had hoped fervently that my instructor would like it. He did. My stories reminded him of others; my climaxes and eloquences were punctuated by his marginal amens. He forgot to put on a grade, but he caught the spirit and I rejoiced. That was a Christmas present worth while.

This statement of a college Senior has its message for all composition teachers. Even more than college students, high-school pupils are sensitive to the attitude of the one who reads their themes; they are easily repelled by lack of sympathy. English study, it cannot be said too often, is not alone nor primarily drill in the mechanics of grammar, spelling, and punctuation. Quite the contrary, composition is learning to express thought. To be spoken effectively, thought must be spontaneous. Unless the pupils feel that they are speaking to one who understands and enjoys them, their thought is inhibited at its very source by the fear of an indifferent critic. "There was some comfort in writing for him," says the Senior. Do your children get some comfort in writing for you?

Comments on themes are the sure indication of a teacher's attitude. Penciled remarks are among the most effective instruments of instruction because they are insistently remembered. The morale of a class is lowered when children expectantly receiving their returned themes are baffled by the absence of comments, meaning no interest; or are irritated by red-ink straining-at-gnats corrections, meaning no sympathy. The teacher must show interest in what pupils have to say; this will best encourage them to say something more. There must be appreciation of the personality of the writers of original expressions, of individual points of view, even at the expense of passing over, for the time, errors in externalities. If the children feel comfortable and happy in their writing, they will accept adverse criticism without resentment; the sting is taken out of comments which are not compliments.

Theme reading such as this is not an easy task; but in order to secure the happy results minor considerations may well be eliminated. Reduce the number of themes; cut down their length; give more time and energy for teaching that has great reward. There is no virtue in the bulk of papers you correct, no sanctity in the amount of time you spend. As soon as themes become drudgery to you they become worse than drudgery to the pupils—they become punishment. Enlist the instincts of self-revelation and communication as allies in English work. Make theme comments personal and sympathetic. The response will be an effort to say something worth while, and that after all is the primary business of the composition class. The mechanics of good form will come only through a desire to dress worthy ideas in suitable garments.

"Literature à la Carte"

A communication

Not being concerned with the teaching of English, I was skipping over "Literature *à la Carte*" in your February issue—in my eagerness to read the excellent article on algebra—when my eye lighted on some remarkable statements in said article that made me go back and read it from end to end. And I'm mighty glad I did so, as it has given me much pleasure—of a malicious and altogether unholy nature.

From what I can gather the author of "Literature *à la Carte*" holds: first, that tastes in literary dishes vary with the individual and that this variation is particularly marked in children; secondly, that because of this variation children should not all be made to read the same story or book, but should be given plenty of wide choice in the selection of

literature; thirdly (here I am not sure that I get the author's meaning), there are mighty few books worth reading through, it being sufficient to choose certain chapters. (I tried chap. ii of *Hugh Wynne* and found it the stupidest chapter of an otherwise excellent novel. But as I say, I have perhaps missed the significance of the thought the author strives to convey.)

Space will not permit of pausing to comment on the sprightly and unusual manner in which Professor Opdycke introduces his subject. Such gems as: "The *pompus* parade of provender moves apace" must be passed over. Though we wince at the sting conveyed in "The conceit of adulthood is nowhere more apparent . . . . than in its formulation of studies for the young"; though we may protest at classifying algebra, history, grammar, and "*table d'hôte* reading" as "ptomaines," yet we will suffer in silence. Later on we read that "'Casey at the Bat' may be an excellent beginning for a group of readings that deal with the subject of rivalry or contest, a subject always near to the heart of youth."

Mr. Editor, isn't that a rather poor beginning? If Casey had knocked the ball over left-field fence, thereby winning the game, youth would have rejoiced. But Casey struck out. Why, the charm of that poem lies in the humor, the burlesque of mighty Casey "fanning" when so much depended on his hitting. Youth doesn't care for eleventh-hour failures; youth wants the game saved, not lost.

Later on we read: "They [children] no longer wallow in the slime of the penny dreadfuls. 'Nick Carter' is dead and done with—Glory be!" If Professor Opdycke means to imply that there was "slime" in the Nick Carter stories of fifteen years ago, can he prove it? As a boy I was warned away from those "dime novels"; and, boylike, I determined to try them. Alas, Nick Carter was so tame, so improbable, so wishy-washy, after such stories as *Treasure Island* and *Sherlock Holmes*, that I put him aside forever. Slime? Why there's more slime in some of our magazines and best sellers than Nick Carter ever dreamed of—may he rest in peace!

But the cream of Professor Opdycke's article—the dessert in this *à la carte* feast—is in the long list of poems and stories "that have been worked out with such excellent results."

Perhaps only a carping critic would suggest the inappropriateness of classifying Tennyson's "Break, Break, Break" as a sea poem. The sea is certainly mentioned, so let it pass. Olive Thorn Miller's middle name was perhaps made *Thome* by a typographical error. And doubtless to

the *à la carte* it is immaterial whether Booth Tarkington or Paul Leicester Ford wrote *The Great K and A Train Robbery*, so long as it is a bully good story, surpassing Nick Carter at his best. Nor is *Freckles* made any poorer by attributing the authorship to Lynn Roby Meekins instead of Gene Stratton-Porter, although people are doubtless wondering why it is considered a "Train" story. But, Mr. Editor, when among the "Cat Stories" we find Kipling's *Maltese Cat*, and when we vividly recall that the "Cat" was a flea-bitten polo pony, we feel that certainly here Professor Opdycke has put the *carte* before the horse.

All of which recalls the anecdote of the lady (she must have belonged to the *à la carte*) who went to the public library for something to read.

"Have you Laura Jean Libby's latest?" she asked.

"I'm afraid not," said the librarian. "But maybe I can find something else for you. Here's a good story—*The Kentucky Cardinal*."

"Thank you," said the lady, "but I don't care for any religious book today."

"But," protested the librarian, "this cardinal was a bird."

"That fact," answered the lady with freezing dignity, "would certainly not recommend the book to me, I assure you."

It seems to me the trouble with Professor Opdycke's *à la carte* menu is that when you order a literary dish you never know what you're going to get. Imagine ordering "Maltese Cat" and getting horse flesh! But I would not have the impression prevail that I am out of sympathy with any movement whose ultimate aim is to cherish and foster a love for good literature. Indeed as far as my very limited knowledge goes most people have already agreed that it is unreasonable to expect children to love literature when they are forced to read, and even to study intensively, books that to them are dreary and dull. Yet I seriously doubt whether many teachers of English, after reading "Literature *à la Carte*," will be ready to go as far in the other direction as the author would have them go.

In conclusion I wish to say that all of the foregoing opinions are but a layman's point of view. I am sure Professor Opdycke has forgotten more literature than I ever knew. So I feel sure he will generously and charitably view this wordy epistle with that forbearance usually exhibited toward those who are plainly in their—(table) dotage.

J. T. ROBINSON

RICHMOND, VA.

BOOK REVIEWS

CURRENT LITERATURE ON CIVICS AND OTHER SOCIAL STUDIES IN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

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Space will not permit an exhaustive treatment of the numerous books, articles, and pamphlets which have come from the press during the past twelve months or so, purporting to contain material for the betterment of both the subject-matter and the teaching of civics, and some other of the social studies in one or more of the last six grades of the public schools. Under these circumstances it becomes necessary either to make selections from the whole mass or to take types, and either to give all that has appeared under each or to select the most helpful from a number. In this discussion it seems most worth while to exhaust certain types and select the best from others. The types included herein are: committee reports, books and articles on the teaching of civics, and material adapted to local conditions.

REPORT OF COMMITTEES

The year 1916 will go down as an important one in the history of the teaching of the social studies in the junior and senior high schools, because three important committees made reports during this year. In a book of 284 pages appeared the report of a committee of the American Political Science Association on the methods of studying and teaching government, pursued in American schools, colleges, and universities.[1] In a pamphlet of 63 pages on *The Social Studies in Secondary Education*[2] a committee of the National Education Association made known its views on these important studies; and in a similar form was published *Five Hundred Practical Questions* by a special committee of the New England History Teachers' Association.[3]

In 1908 there was printed in the *Proceedings of the American Political Science Association* the report of the Committee of Five of this organization. This report centered about the following phases of civic instruction in secondary schools: number of students enrolled and the time given to the subject, the nature of the course and plan of instruction, the teacher, the textbook, and the

[1] Haines and others, *The Teaching of Government.* Macmillan, 1916.

[2] A. W. Dunn (secretary), *The Social Studies in Secondary Education*, Bulletin, 1916, No. 28. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

[3] *Five Hundred Practical Questions in Economics for Use in the Secondary Schools.* D. C. Heath & Co., 1916.

school library. After a brief period of three years another committee was appointed by this same association to supplement and add to the scope of the report. It is the report of this latter committee that is under review. Besides a very suggestive section on "Recent Progress in the Teaching of Government," there are parts devoted to a report on the teaching of civics in secondary schools, the course of study, report on the teaching of political science in colleges and universities, and an appendix containing the report of state committees on the teaching of civics in elementary and secondary schools, the first one and the last two being of little practical importance. This, however, is not saying that they lack historical value. Indeed, a few years hence we shall be glad to have this material in the form in which it appears in the report for purposes of comparison.

The section on the course of study contains suggestions as to the subject-matter and methods of approach to the study of government in both the elementary and the secondary schools, and rather complete bibliographies on methods of teaching and books for both texts and references. The course suggested for Grades I–III aims to lay the foundation for good citizenship by developing in the children such civic virtues as obedience, cleanliness, orderliness, honesty, courage, and the like, as applied to the home and school; and that for Grades IV–VI emphasizes community service, especially that rendered by those who furnish food, water, clothing, shelter, fuel, and medical aid. The course for the junior high school centers around fifteen topics which are outlined briefly in the report.[1] The course suggested for the senior high school deals wholly with state and federal government. An outline, which merely aims to suggest a method of approach, is presented for both phases of this work. On the whole, the report is of considerable value and is well worth a careful perusal by civics teachers in both junior and senior high schools.

The pamphlet on *The Social Studies in Secondary Education* is made up of four parts, namely, Introduction; "Social Studies for Seventh, Eighth, and Ninth Years"; "Social Studies for the Tenth, Eleventh, and Twelfth Years"; and "Standards, Preparation of the Teacher, and Text Material." A brief summary of each of these follows.

The Introduction is largely concerned with presenting the point of view of the committee and a general outline of social studies for secondary schools. Four things are emphasized in the point of view: viz., social studies require socialization; the immediate needs of the pupils should determine the selection of topics and the organization of the subject-matter; detailed outlines of courses tend to fix instruction in stereotyped forms; and effective social training in the high school demands that more consideration be given to its organic continuity with the work of the elementary school in the same field.

[1] With one exception these topics are the same as those prepared and worked out in detail in a pamphlet published by the United States Bureau of Education to which attention is called elsewhere in this article.

The "cycle" plan of organizing the courses in the social studies in the junior and senior high schools is proposed, the first cycle consisting of geography, European history, American history, and civics; the second, of European history, American history, and problems of democracy—social, economic, and political.

The social studies proposed for the seventh, eighth, and ninth years are geography and European history, each to be given one-half year in the seventh, civics being taught as a phase of both; or European history, one year, both geography and civics being taught as phases of history; in the eighth year, American history and civics, each one-half year, geography to be taught incidentally to history; in the ninth year, civics, making much use of history. The major part of the discussion in this section is devoted to the one and one-half years' work in civics, the subject which seems to interest the committee most.

For the senior-high-school course, the committee recommends one year of European history approximately to the end of the seventeenth century, one or one-half year of European history since the foregoing date, one or one-half year of American history since the seventeenth century, and one or one-half year of a study of the problems of American democracy. As to the organization of the subject-matter within the history course, the topical or problem method and the selection of topics with reference to the pupils' immediate interests as well as to their general social significance are recommended. Concrete examples are given illustrating how these two things may be done. The bulk of the discussion in this section is devoted to history, the course in the problems of democracy receiving but four and one-half pages.

Standards for testing the value of civics instruction are presented in the last section. Five standards are stated with little comment. Some suggestions on the preparation of the teacher and text material are also included here. It is the opinion of the committee that there will be no lack of suitable textbooks when once we find out what we want to do. As a whole, the report is very stimulating and well worth the careful attention of anyone interested in the betterment of the subject-matter and the methods of instruction in the social studies in junior and senior high schools.

The pamphlet, *Five Hundred Practical Questions in Economics for Use in the Secondary Schools*, submitted by the committee of the New England History Teachers' Association, has value for at least two groups of teachers. The teacher of high-school economics will find it valuable in standardizing the material and rationalizing the method of teaching this subject, and those interested in working out a course in the problems of democracy as suggested by the Committee on Social Studies will find the questions helpful guides in selecting the economic material for this course. The definiteness of this report enhances its usefulness. After reading it in connection with the two foregoing, one feels that their value is lessened by a lack of what this one contains as its chief characteristic.

BOOKS AND ARTICLES ON CIVICS AND THE TEACHING OF CIVICS

One book[1] and one pamphlet[2] should be included in this review, even though neither appeared in 1916.

Miss Hill's book is both theoretical and practical, the former phase treating the problems of civics teaching and the latter offering practical suggestions for the teaching of civics. Twenty-four suggestive lessons are worked out in some detail in the practical part of the book. Even though a teacher may not use the same topics as herein suggested, she will find many things in these outlined lessons which are applicable to topics other than those proposed by Miss Hill.

The Teaching of Community Civics by Barnard and others is in reality a supplement to the report of the Committee on Social Studies. The pamphlet is made up of a section on aims and methods in the teaching of community civics, one on suggested treatment of the elements of welfare, and one on bibliographical suggestions. The second is of most value to teachers. It contains enough material for all the work usually done in community civics by an eighth grade. No teacher of civics in the junior high school should be without this valuable pamphlet.

To the already existing list of texts in community civics adapted to junior high-school students, three were added during the past year. These include one by Field and Nearing,[3] one by McCarty, Swan, and McMullen,[4] and one by John A. Lapp.[5] All these books are more or less along the same line as Dunn's *The Community and the Citizen*, which first appeared in 1907 and was revised and enlarged in 1914.

The text by Field and Nearing is especially adapted to schools in rural communities. It is well illustrated with scenes of country life. Furthermore, the exercises for investigation and discussion, questions for study and review, and the subjects of the majority of the chapters have to do with the country and country life. The unique feature of the book by McCarty and others is the emphasis placed on the historical phase of the topics treated. For example, the chapter on "Why We Vote in Parties" is immediately preceded by one on "The Industrial Revolution and the Ballot," which in reality is a part of the first-mentioned chapter; the chapter on "Justice" begins with a discussion of the wager of battle, and the one on "Education" with vocational education in the Middle Ages. The practical questions at the end of each chapter are suggestive and more or less helpful; and the appendix of 72 pages contains material of some value for illustrative purposes.

[1] Mabel Hill, *The Teaching of Civics*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1914.

[2] Barnard and others, *The Teaching of Community Civics*, United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1915. No. 23.

[3] *Community Civics*. Macmillan, 1916.

[4] *An Elementary Civics*. Thompson, Brown & Co., 1916.

[5] *Our America: The Elements of Civics*. Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1916.

Lapp says that the object of his book is to teach government as it is organized and conducted. To do this he employs the methods of community civics. Instead of placing so much emphasis, however, on the local community as is done in some other texts, the book aims to emphasize the work of the state and nation along with that of the local community in dealing with such elements of welfare as health and education. If a teacher is looking for a text on which to base the work proposed for the first half of the ninth year by the Committee on Social Studies, he should examine Lapp's book before deciding the matter.

The Committee on Social Studies recommends a course in vocational enlightenment for the last half of the ninth year. A text for such a course has recently appeared.[1] Among other things this book presents a detailed study of the most important life vocations primarily for boys.[2] Mr. Wheatley's experience with a course in vocational enlightenment in the schools of Middletown, Connecticut, enabled him to co-operate in writing a book of much practical value.

A few practical articles on the teaching of civics appeared in the current educational journals during 1916. Those of most value contained descriptions of courses in actual operation. Superintendent Horton's article,[3] which appeared early in the year, is an explanation of the origin, background, general principles, and aims as they relate to the course in the high school at Mishawawka, Indiana. An outline of the course is also given, as well as a rather complete bibliography. The course, as it is now administered, is even more up to date than when Mr. Horton wrote his article. Byron Legg has charge of the work, and information concerning it may be had from him.

The problem of adapting civics to the needs of pupils in special courses is one with which teachers are struggling just now. How one school is solving this problem is described in a recent article by R. D. Leonard,[4] of New Bedford, Massachusetts. The course herein described was organized after a careful survey of the needs and interests of the boys to whom it was to be given. The majority of the work outlined deals with civic conditions and activities. Health, education, recreation, and the like, are organized into units and carried along at the same time by means of an outline in the form of a spiral. Nine levels are included in the spiral. They are arranged according to the principles—from the simple to the complex, and from the known to the unknown. It is necessary to read this entire article before one can get a working notion

[1] Gowin and Wheatley, *Occupations*. Ginn & Co., 1916.

[2] Books of a similar nature which appeared earlier are: Weaver's *Vocations for Girls*, and *Profitable Vocations for Boys*. A. S. Barnes Co., 1913 and 1915.

[3] "Standards for Community Civics," *History Teachers' Magazine*, February, 1916.

[4] "Civics, as Taught in the New Bedford Industrial School," *Education*, October, 1916.

of how this spiral scheme is employed. The course as described is very interesting both in method of procedure and in subject-matter.

While making civics practical in an industrial school for boys might seem somewhat difficult, the problem becomes more complex when thought of in connection with a high school for girls. In an article[1] which appeared last spring, Miss Mable Skinner tells how she is solving this problem in a large girls' school. The course herein described is one year in length, the first semester centering around such topics as the family and the state as institutions, and problems of a housekeeper and parent, wage-earner, industry, communities, and the nation. The work is made concrete by visits, surveys, debates, notebooks, and the bulletin board. One must read the article to get a clear conception of what Miss Skinner is really doing.

Before passing to the next section of this discussion, mention must be made of one other article,[2] which describes things as they are actually done. A new civics course has recently been worked out for the elementary schools of Philadelphia. The work for the first six grades has been published.[3] While Mr. Barnard describes the work of these grades in his article, he also mentions that for Grades VII and VIII. From his description one concludes that Philadelphia is willing to accept and adopt the course proposed for these grades by the Committee on Social Studies. If one is familiar with these proposals, little would be gained in the reading of Mr. Barnard's article.

CIVICS MATERIAL ADAPTED TO LOCAL CONDITIONS

The cities that have done something worth while along this line are Newark, New Jersey, Cincinnati, Ohio, and New Orleans, Louisiana. Of these three cities, Newark is easily the leader. Besides *A Short History of Newark*, there has been prepared and published for the use of teachers a manual called *Newark in the Public Schools of Newark*, and forty or more pamphlets dealing with such subjects as the public-school system of Newark playgrounds, Newark city government, and the like, which may be used by both teachers and pupils. Here is a city that has solved the biggest problem relative to the teaching of community civics. What Newark has done, other cities will have to do or be content with a mediocre type of such work.

Cincinnati and New Orleans have solved this problem in a somewhat different way. *The Citizens' Book* contains the necessary material for a rather thorough study of Cincinnati, and *The New Orleans Book* the same sort of material for a study of that city. Both of these books were copyrighted last

[1] "Civics as Taught in the Washington Irving High School, New York City," *National Municipal Review*, April, 1916.

[2] J. L. Barnard, "Training in the Schools for Social Efficiency," *Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science*, LXVII (September, 1916).

[3] *The Course of Study in Civics—Grades I to VII*. Central Press Co., Philadelphia, Pa., 1916.

year. The one on Cincinnati is almost a model in make-up and content. It contains four chapters on history, the one on pioneer life being of great value, and eighteen on such topics as the people of the city, public health, police department, fire prevention and extinction, education, art, music, recreation, and the like. *The New Orleans Book* contains much the same sort of material as that found in *The Citizens' Book;* yet, if one desires a model for working up similar material for his own city, the latter seems more desirable. Both books can be purchased through *The American City*, 87 Nassau Street, New York City.

All the material that has been mentioned in this brief review can be had at small expense, no one item costing much more than one dollar. If a civics teacher desires to reorganize her work and make it fully up to date, she will do well to secure all the material mentioned above, and peruse it with much care. Since the writer has read the whole of practically every book, article and pamphlet mentioned herein, he can speak with considerable confidence as to the value of the contents of each.

The Experimental Determination of Mental Discipline in School Studies. By HAROLD ORDWAY RUGG, PH.D. Baltimore: Warwick & York.

In this study on the transfer of training from one field to another Dr. Rugg gives experimental proof of such transfer and thus relieves the "dogma of formal discipline" of some of the disfavor into which it has been cast by less exhaustive experimenters. He summarizes all the studies that have been made in this field and, using them as a foundation, builds a new superstructure that is scientific and illuminating. The large number of persons, "the training group," to which he gave the various tests, the elapse of time between the beginning of the experiment and its conclusion, the "control group," for absolute check on the experiment, and the natural conditions under which the various tests were given, all contribute to inspire confidence in the conclusions which the author makes.

No student of education doubts the transfer of training from one field to a closely allied field; neither is there a question regarding the "spread" of training to less closely allied fields having "common elements." Dr. Rugg, however, sets out to discover whether there is a transfer to fields totally different from the one in which the training is given. He has made a real contribution to our educational literature.

The problem to which he addresses himself is threefold: (1) Does improvement in one ability spread to other abilities? (2) If so, how far does it spread? (3) Through what agencies does it spread?

Dr. Rugg's solution of the problem is that while the study was made of visualization in descriptive geometry the ability is transferred to solving problems of a completely non-geometrical nature, that the amount of transfer is dependent upon general scholastic ability to "conceptualize," and that the

agencies of transfer are the building up of "attitudes of orientation," the increased facility in holding and manipulating a large number of visual elements at the same time, and the development of methods of analysis and attack.

J. HERBERT KELLEY

COLORADO STATE NORMAL COLLEGE
GUNNISON, COLO.

Standards for Measuring Junior High Schools. By ERWIN E. LEWIS. Iowa City: University of Iowa, 1916. Pp. 30.

The numerous students of educational problems who have found difficulty in ascertaining in the midst of conflicting claims just what is meant by "a junior high school," will discover a very satisfactory treatment of the subject in the bulletin recently prepared by Mr. Lewis. Mr. Lewis has made a careful analysis of the diversified literature which pertains to the junior high school, on the basis of which he describes ten major characteristics or "standards," namely: (1) entrance requirements, (2) classification of pupils, (3) grades included, (4) housing, (5) courses, (6) method of promotion, (7) departmentalized instruction, (8) preparation of teachers, (9) student advisory system, and (10) supervised study.

Each of the foregoing points is further defined from the point of view of a standard junior high school. While many readers will undoubtedly differ from the author as to the points which enter into the measurement of the "standard" junior high school, all will welcome the clarifying effect which Mr. Lewis' treatment of this mooted subject affords. The work is introduced by a historical consideration of the points involved and concluded by a well-selected and annotated bibliography of twenty-one titles.

FRED C. AYER

UNIVERSITY OF OREGON

Food Study: A Textbook in Home Economics for High Schools. By MABEL THACHER WELLMAN.

This book seems to have covered the ground pretty thoroughly, and to be a source of reliable information gathered from standard works and authorities. The class experiments are clear and definite, the summary questions and references most comprehensive.

But in an attempt to put the material together for "certain advantages in presentation, as the early introduction of such subjects as meals and serving," a most illogical and confusing plan has been followed. It is quite reasonable to devote the first five chapters to a study of fruits and various methods and principles of preservation, although a general introduction to micro-organisms should precede a specific study of molds, yeasts, and bacteria. The next four lessons, under the heading "Use of Water in Cooking" take up the preparation of *potatoes*, *eggs*, and *cereals*, while later starch and rice are discussed. A much

better plan would have based more on the division of "chief food principles," taking up the carbohydrates and principles involved in their preparation, developing that and then discussing eggs as a protein food—not under the head of "Use of Water in Cooking."

The various meal plans can easily be worked in without such a confusion of general principles. So on through the book—the beverage lessons stray from their purpose to a combination devoid of any purpose, and there is a general lack of orderly procedure. A student of this text could scarcely formulate a very definite notion of the five food principles or plans and the general principles governing their preparation, although she might have gathered some accurate information in specific instances. A general rearrangement of the material would make the text much more acceptable as such.

CATHERINE CREAMER

STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

Greek and Roman Mythology. By JESSIE M. TATLOCK. New York: Century Co., 1917. Pp. 370. $1.50.

A review of this book reveals the fact that the most essential and valuable myths can be put in a concise but attractive volume. The author's aim, which is to give an understanding of the peoples among whom the mythology was fostered as well as to familiarize the student with the commoner myths referred to in literature and art, is very well accomplished. The attitude of sympathetic appreciation which the author has taken both in the introductory chapter and in each individual story is almost certain to give the reader the desired attitude toward mythology.

The scope of the book accords with the aim and with the presentation of subject-matter. The high-school student needs a book of mythology which deals with those mythical characters who play such a large part in all classical literature, and which does not attempt to exhaust the field of mythical lore.

The chief merit of this book, which places it above the Guerber and Gayley textbooks on mythology, is its unity. The tendency of previous authors has been to present mythology as a great mass of loosely connected detail. Miss Tatlock has connected the stories in such a way that the young student cannot fail to grasp a large part of the material without testing his memory beyond natural limits. Thus the numerous love affairs of Zeus are rarely told as a connected story, although that is the effective method of presentation. The appendixes are extremely valuable for general reference. The pictures of standard works of art are worthy of favorable comment. The distinct print renders the book more readable than Gayley or Guerber.

ADALINE LINCOLN

VAN BUREN, ARK.

BOOK-NOTES

(Detailed discussions of some of the following books will appear later.)

Boletin de la Institucion Libre de Ensenanza. Madrid: Institucion, Pase Del Obelisio, 14, 1916.

FALES, JANE. *Dressmaking: A Manual for Schools and Colleges.* New York: Scribner, 1917. Pp. 508.

Part I presents the development of costume from the standpoint of history and design. Part II considers the materials which are used in dressmaking, and discusses the economic value of various fibers and fabrics. Part III treats design and technique in pattern-making and dressmaking. The text is a distinct acquisition to the literature of home economics.

FULTON, M. G. *Southern Life in Southern Literature.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1917. Pp. 530. $0.80.

An interesting book. The arrangement and classification of material impress the reader with the fact that the literature of the South is not only distinct but distinguished.

HAZEN, CHARLES D. *Modern European History.* New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1917. Pp. 650. $1.75.

Clear maps set into the chapters which they represent. Profusely illustrated. The emphasis upon social phases of political history.

HEARN, TAFCADIO. *Interpretations of Literature.* New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1916. Selected from Hearn's notes. Edited by JOHN ERSKINE, Associate Professor of English, Columbia University. Vol. II.

HORNE, HERMAN H. *The Teacher as Artist.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916. Pp. 62. $0.70.

The chapter entitled "Shriving the Inartistic Teacher" offers considerable food for thought.

JOHNSTON, C. H. and OTHERS. *The Modern High School: Its Administration and Extension.* New York: Scribner, 1916. Pp. 848.

The book is a survey of policies, examples, and suggestions of ways and means of making the strictly socializing work of our high schools more effective and more nearly universal.

LEE, A. *Lessons in English.* Book II. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1917. Pp. 320. $0.68.

The book is based upon Reed and Kellogg's *Higher Lessons in English.* Part I is a formal treatment of grammar adapted to practical use. As far as feasible, the editor has adopted the terminology of the Joint Committee on Nomenclature, the National Education Association, the Modern Language Association of America, and the American Philological Association. Part II treats of the four forms of discourse

beginning with the word as the smallest unit. More stress is laid upon models than in the old text and an effort has been made to fit the models to the social interests of the pupils.

Monthly Record of Current Educational Publications. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 36, 1916.

OPDYCKE, JOHN B. (Editor). Hawthorne's *House of the Seven Gables.* New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1917. Pp. 385. $0.52.
Scholarly introduction and comments. Good for advanced classes.

PALMER, GEORGE HERBERT. *Self-Cultivation in English and the Glory of the Imperfect.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1917. Pp. 69. $0.16.

PARK, C. W. *The Co-operative System of Education: An Account of Co-operative Education as Developed in the College of Engineering, University of Cincinnati.* Washington: Government Printing Office, 1916.

PEARSON, FRANCIS B. *Reveries of a Schoolmaster.* New York: Scribner, 1917. Pp. 203. $1.00.
An interesting attempt on the part of a schoolmaster to view himself from the outside.

POTTS, R. M. *Addresses and Papers on Insurance.* Springfield, Ill.: Schnepp & Barnes, State Printers, 1917. Pp. 489.

Proceedings of the High School Conference of November 23–25, 1916. University of Illinois, School of Education, Bulletin No. 17.

Report on the Work of the Bureau of Education for the Natives of Alaska, 1914–15. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 47, 1916.

ROBERTS, A. W. and ROLFE, J. C. *Cicero: Selected Orations and Letters.* New York: Scribner, 1917. Pp. 439 (of text).
The authors intend the text to be more than mere classical exercises. The maps and plans are clear and well placed. Forty-four pages of introduction are given to an explanation of Cicero's position in Rome, which made his orations timely. The grammatical introduction includes figures of grammar and rhetoric and an explanation of Roman dates. Two hundred pages of notes seem undesirable in a high-school text.

SELLARS, R. W. *The Essentials of Logic.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1917. Pp. 343. $1.60 net.

State Higher Educational Institutions of North Dakota. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 27, 1916. Pp. 204.
A report to the North Dakota State Board of Regents of a survey made under the direction of the United States Commissioner of Education.

SUPPLE, ED. U. *Spanish Reader of South American History.* New York: Macmillan, 1917. Pp. 375. $1.00.
The book is edited with notes, exercises, and vocabulary and has clear maps and interesting illustrations.

TATLOCK, JESSIE M. Greek and Roman Mythology. New York: Century Co., 1917. Pp. 372. $1.50.

A very carefully edited and handsomely illustrated book. The clear white paper and large, clean print add greatly to the usefulness of the myths in high schools.

University Training for Public Service. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 30, 1916.

A report of the meeting of the Association of Urban Universities, November 15–17, 1915.

TEMPLE, H. W. *Practical Drawing.* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1917. Pp. 141.

Progressive course in drawing applied to turning and furniture building.

THOMPSON, D. V. (Editor). Shakespeare's *Macbeth.* New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1917. Pp. 145. $0.60.

The edition will be welcome to high schools for two reasons. All textual criticisms and controversial material have been omitted. There is a good picture of an Elizabethan stage, a clear map of Scotland with important places plainly marked, and suggestive bits showing the various interpretations of Macbeth and Lady Macbeth's characters by such dramatic artists as David Garrick and Mrs. Siddons.

WARD, G. O. *The Practical Use of Books and Libraries* (3d ed., rev. and enlarged). Boston: Boston Book Co., 1917. Pp. 118. $1.25.

A book which all high-school students should be familiar with.

Vocational Secondary Education. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 21, 1916.

WERTHNER, WILLIAM B. *How Man Makes Markets.* New York: Macmillan, 1917. Pp. 200. $0.40.

Talks on commercial geography made attractive to young children.

WOODBURN, JAMES A. (Editor). *The New Purchase or Seven and a Half Years in the Far West.* Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1916. Pp. 522.

WOOD, C. A. *School and College Credit for Outside Bible Study.* Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1917. Pp. 317. $1.50.

The University of Chicago
FOUNDED BY JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER

ANNOUNCEMENTS

Vol. XVI No. 1

THE SUMMER QUARTER
1917

THE Summer Quarter at the University of Chicago is the most largely attended of the year, more than five thousand students having registered in the summer of 1916. The University year is divided into quarters: the Autumn, Winter, Spring, and Summer. In 1917 the Summer Quarter will begin June 18 and close August 31. The First Term will begin June 18; the Second Term, July 26. Students may register for either Term or for both. Students entering at the beginning of the Second Term may register for courses for which they have had the prerequisites. The courses during the Summer Quarter are the same in character, method, and credit value as in other quarters of the year.

A large proportion of the regular Faculty of the University, which numbers over three hundred, and also many instructors from other institutions, offer courses in the Summer Quarter, and in this way many varied points of view are given to students in their chosen fields of study.

ARTS, LITERATURE, AND SCIENCE

The University offers during this quarter, in the Schools of Art, Literature, and Science, both graduate and undergraduate courses in Philosophy, Psychology, and Education; Political Economy, Political Science, History, Sociology and Anthropology, and Household Administration; Semitics and Biblical Greek; Comparative Religion; History of Art, Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin; Modern Languages; Mathematics, Astronomy, Physics, and Chemistry; Geology and Geography; Botany, Zoölogy, Physiology, Physiological Chemistry and Pharmacology, Anatomy, Pathology, Hygiene and Bacteriology; and Public Speaking.

THE PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS

Divinity

The Divinity School is open to students of all denominations, and the instruction is intended for ministers, missionaries, theological students, Christian teachers, and others intending to take up some kind of religious work. The English Theological Seminary, which is intended for those without college degrees, is in session only during the Summer Quarter. The Graduate Divinity School is designed for college graduates. Pastors, theological teachers, students in other seminaries, candidates for the ministry, and other Christian workers, with requisite training, are admitted in the Summer Quarter.

The Chicago Theological Seminary will also be in session during the Summer Quarter, and its courses are open on the same conditions as those that obtain in the Divinity School.

Law

In the work of the Law School the method of instruction employed—the study and discussion of cases—is designed to give an effective knowledge of legal principles, and to develop the power of independent legal reasoning. The three-year course of study offered constitutes a thorough preparation for the practice of law in any English-speaking jurisdiction. By means of the quarter system students may be graduated in two and one-fourth calendar years. Regular courses of instruction counting toward a degree are continued through the Summer Quarter. The courses are so arranged that students may take one, two, or three quarters in succession in the summer only before continuing in the following Autumn Quarter. The summer work offers particular advantages to teachers, to students who wish to do extra work, and to practitioners who desire to study special subjects.

Medicine

Courses in Medicine constituting the first two years of the four-year course in medicine in Rush Medical College are given at the University of Chicago. For the majority of students taking up medical work for the first time, it is of decided advantage to enter with the Spring or Autumn Quarter. For the student who is lacking in any of the admission courses, or who seeks advanced standing, it is of especial advantage to enter for the Summer Quarter. All the courses offered are open to practitioners

of medicine, who may matriculate as unclassified or as graduate students. Practitioners taking this work may attend the clinics at Rush Medical College without charge.

Education

In the Professional Schools the Graduate Department of Education in the School of Education gives advanced courses in Principles and Theory of Education, Educational Psychology, the Psychology of Retarded and Subnormal Children, History of Education, and Social and Administrative Aspects of Education. The College of Education is a regular college of the University, with all University privileges, and in addition provides the professional training of elementary- and secondary-school teachers and supervisors. It offers undergraduate courses in professional subjects and in the methods of arranging and presenting the various subject-matters which are taken up in the elementary and secondary schools. The University High School, with the fully equipped shops of the Manual Training Department, is in session during the Summer Quarter, and opportunity is offered to take beginning courses in Latin and to review courses in Mathematics and History. The regular shop work, supplemented by discussions of methods, is open to teachers pursuing these courses.

Commerce and Administration

The School of Commerce and Administration is an undergraduate-graduate professional school, offering courses arranged to meet the needs of those preparing for various business pursuits, for commercial teaching, for secretarial work, and for philanthropic service. The work for the summer of 1917 will be organized, in co-operation with the School of Education, with especial reference to the needs of commercial teachers. In all the curricula emphasis is placed upon (1) broad foundations of work in history, political economy, sociology, psychology, biology, government and law; (2) an individualized curriculum; (3) contact with practical affairs; and (4) a professional spirit.

The University of Chicago is peculiarly fortunate in its environment in summer. The city of Chicago is relatively cool. High temperatures are not frequent or long continued, and the normal temperature, in comparison with that of other large cities, is low. Reports of the United

States Weather Bureau show that the average summer temperature of Chicago is lower than that of most cities of its class. In addition to this advantage in weather conditions, the University has an especially favorable situation in the city. To the south stretches the Midway Plaisance, an avenue of lawn a block wide and a mile long; and about equidistant are Washington Park, a large recreation ground on the west, and Jackson Park, equally spacious, on the shore of Lake Michigan, to the east.

Opportunities for diversion are numerous. In Jackson Park there are golf links, and in both Jackson and Washington parks, lagoons for rowing. There are many tennis courts in both parks, along the Midway, and on the campus. Through the Frank Dickinson Bartlett Gymnasium full facilities for physical culture are given to men. The Reynolds Club offers social privileges to men. Similar opportunities for women are offered in the gymnasium, swimming pool, and clubrooms of the new Ida Noyes Hall. Many social clubs are organized among students. The Dames Club of the University of Chicago, composed of wives and mothers of students, meets every second and fourth Saturday of the month. The place of meeting will be announced in the *Weekly Calendar*.

Notable public libraries and museums, highly organized industrial plants, many typical foreign colonies, a large number of settlements, and other significant social institutions make Chicago a peculiarly appropriate center for study and investigation.

A series of public lectures in Literature, History, Sociology, Science, Art, Music, etc., scheduled at late afternoon and evening hours throughout the Summer Quarter, affords an opportunity to students and other members of the University community to hear speakers of authority and distinction in many departments of study and activity. This program will include a number of popular readings and recitals, open-air performances, concerts, and excursions to places and institutions of interest in and near Chicago.

The complete ANNOUNCEMENT of courses for the Summer Quarter of 1917 will be sent on application to

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS